

**ELEMENTARY STUDIES IN
GEOGRAPHY & HISTORY**

H. J. MACKINDER.

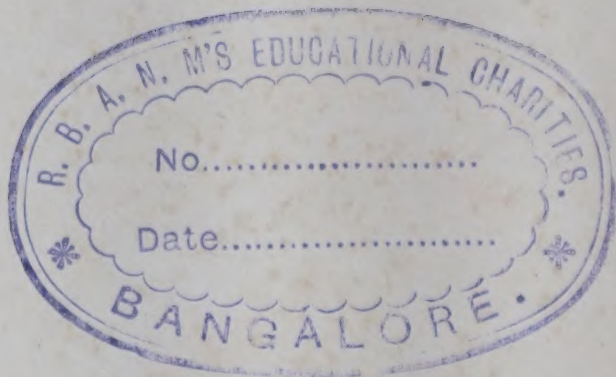
**THE
NATIONS
OF THE
MODERN
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THE COURSE OF THE SPANISH ARMADA ROUND THE SHORES
OF BRITAIN.

THE NATIONS OF THE MODERN WORLD

An Elementary Study
in Geography

BY

H. J. MACKINDER, M.A.

READER IN GEOGRAPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, AND LATELY

READER IN GEOGRAPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

Author of "Britain and the British Seas"

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PREFACE

THIS is a book of mingled Geography and History. The plan of the whole is geographical in conception, but the chapters are more often than not historical narratives. My aim has been to equip the young citizen of a free country, which is also one of the Great Powers of the globe, with a knowledge of the chief contrasts of the political and commercial world. We must think of the competing nations of to-day in their geographical setting, but it is futile to treat of them statically. They are each of them waxing and waning in many different ways. For the purposes of popular education, however, the relations of to-day must stand in the foreground. Once again I plead for the teaching of Geography and History, rather than of History and Geography.

This series of four little books, now completed, began with the Geography of our own Islands. There the pupil was incited to read the map with mastery, building up mental pictures from it, and associating history with it. In the second book, which dealt with the Lands beyond the Channel, the attempt was made to convey to the many who must leave school early, something of the sense of geographical and historical perspective which is the basis of statesmanship. In the third book, on the Distant Lands of the Globe, the out-

look was broadened so as to include the world-wide stage of modern life, the physical controls being explained incidentally. Finally, in the present book the practical aim of the whole study becomes evident. With powers prepared and strengthened in the previous stages, the pupil is asked to visualize with a single grasp our whole world of varied scene and incessant change. Almost every great problem of to-day is a whole-world problem, and the comprehensive outlook must be cultivated. If I have in any measure succeeded in my effort, my pupils will go forth, even from the primary school, with something of "humane" culture in them. In the degree that they have won the sense of perspective in affairs, will they be able to distinguish the significant from the insignificant even in the halfpenny newspaper. The yield of every book and of every journey depends on what we take to them.

My only suggestion to the teacher is that the maps of this little volume are meant to be read with as much care as the text. When the finger moves across the map to trace the course of a campaign, or the hand spreads over the map to indicate the gradual extension of new settlement, or of a new religion, the whole soul of the pupil is probably concentrated "once upon a time and in a far-off land." The scale of miles attached to each of the maps should not be overlooked.

H. J. MACKINDER.

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Part I

THE NARROW SEAS

THE modern world has been organized chiefly by four peoples—the English, the French, the Dutch, and the North Germans—who dwell on either hand of the Narrow Seas. Owing to their insular position, the English have had decisive relations with the other three peoples named. Across the Atlantic were the English of New England and the French of Canada, who also have had crucial influence on the modern world. Let us consider the geographical circumstances and the historical springs of action of each of these peoples.



FIG. 1.

CHAPTER I. ENGLAND

THE ancient Greeks regarded as barbarian all the peoples who were not Greek. The ancient Romans looked upon the Roman Empire as for practical purposes equivalent to the World. The Christians of the Middle Ages despised, at the same time that they feared, the pagan races of Asia and Africa. Even in modern times the Great Powers of Europe have regarded themselves as the controllers of the world. Only within the last half century have the nations outside Europe begun to count seriously in the settlement of the affairs of mankind. Thus we realize that until a short time ago our civilization was limited to a small part of the globe, that part which was described in the first two volumes of this series.

Four hundred years ago Christopher Columbus opened the way across the ocean, and in the four centuries which have followed the Europeans have taken possession of the ocean, covering it with their ships, and visiting all the shores of the world. The story of their geographical discoveries was told in our third volume. Until some fifty years ago, however, the European colonies in the distant lands of the world were not populous, and the native races were as yet little influenced by European civilization.

Thus it happened that during the three hundred and fifty years between the days of Columbus and the middle of the nineteenth century a very remarkable condition of affairs prevailed. The home of the Christian peoples was still in Europe, which occupies only one-fiftieth of the surface of the globe, but the European ships had the mastery of all the ocean, which covers three-quarters of the globe. Every shore was accessible to them, and they founded trading stations and small colonies on every important stretch of coast in the world. In the interior of Asia, Africa, and Australia, however, the Europeans had until recently little or no power, and even in North and South America there were great areas wholly unknown. We may therefore think of Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Australia as having been surrounded and besieged by sea-rovers from Europe.

For the purposes of oceanic traffic—westward

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and southward—the Atlantic and the Mediterranean coasts of Europe were about equally well placed, until the Suez Canal was opened in 1869. In the more remote times, however, when as yet men had not ventured round the Cape of Good Hope, the Mediterranean coast had the advantage as a base of commerce to the Indies, and the Italians and Greeks were then the chief traders in the seas west of Suez. But it so happened that just when Columbus, Da Gama, and Magellan were depriving the ocean of its terrors, and revealing the wealth and accessibility of the tropics, the Italians and Greeks of the Mediterranean were harassed by the Turks, who, when they had taken Constantinople, built fleets and fought long wars with the Venetians. Thus it came about that the peoples of the North-West—the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the French, the Dutch, and the English—were able to take the lead in the new ocean-borne commerce.

At first, as we have already learned, the Spaniards and the Portuguese divided between them the empire of the ocean, and excluded the ships of other nationalities from the Pacific and Indian waters. This state of affairs endured for nearly a hundred years, and then the English broke the Spanish monopoly, for the Spaniards had by that time conquered the Portuguese. In 1580, notwithstanding Spanish efforts to intercept him, Sir Francis Drake completed a voyage round the world, and eight years later the Great Armada was defeated.

After the Armada the English and the Dutch became the chief rivals on the ocean, but with hard fighting the English broke the power of the Dutch, and took New Amsterdam in 1664 and renamed it New York. Even so, the British command of the sea was not made good until after a long struggle with the French, the fifth of the nations to bid for power on the water. The decisive events in the naval wars fought between Britain and France were, in the middle of the eighteenth century, the taking of Canada and the overthrow of the French East India Company, and in the beginning of the nineteenth century the battle of Trafalgar.

As the result of Trafalgar, British power on the ocean and along most of the distant coasts of the world was practically uncontested during the first half of the nineteenth century. Our ships policed all the seas, and if we did not take possession of every important island and of most of the chief harbours of the world, it was not from any lack of power to do so, but because as long as our traders were free to trade, we saw no need to cumber ourselves with the duty of ruling barbarous populations. None the less, in the course of quarrels which arose between our traders and other nations, we have at various times annexed many stations scattered round the ocean. Such are Gibraltar and Malta ; the Bermudas ; various of the West India Islands ; St. Helena, Ascension, and the Falkland Islands ; the Cape of Good

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Hope ; Mauritius, the Seychelles, and Aden ; Ceylon, Singapore, and Hong Kong ; Australia and New Zealand ; and Vancouver Island. Yet Britain was by no means the most populous country of Europe, nor in a military sense the strongest. A hundred years ago France had twice as many people. But France spent most of her strength in landward wars, for her position is continental.

The effect of the overseas trade, which rapidly developed in the generations after Columbus, was to lead to the growth of great sea-ports on the oceanic coast of Europe. Of these ports the first to rise was Lisbon and the second was Amsterdam. As the result, however, of the ultimate victory of Britain it was London which became greatest, and the greatness of London has lasted longer than that of Lisbon and Amsterdam. For more than a century past London has been the most populous city in the world. Let us turn back for a moment and gather from some of our earlier chapters the chief geographical and historical facts concerning this great metropolis of the ocean traffic.

London has to-day seven and a quarter million people. Already in the time of the later Stuarts, two and a half centuries ago, it had a population of half a million, and for that time was a very large city. But two hundred and fifty years ago the oceanic commerce of London was only beginning. We must therefore ask what were the conditions

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which made London already great when circumstances transferred to England the commercial primacy which had previously belonged to Holland. None but a city already great, the capital of a rich and enterprising country, could have taken advantage of the position which the fortune of war brought to us.

London is in the south-eastern corner of a narrow island, Great Britain, which stretches northward and is jagged in outline, especially along its western side. Ireland is a smaller, more compact island lying midway off the west coast of Great Britain. Two entries of the ocean separate Ireland from Great Britain, the St. George's Channel and the North Channel, and these give access to the square Irish Sea, whose four sides are the four historic countries, England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales. The Irish Sea invades the breadth of Great Britain, so that the island is reduced in the centre to an isthmus connecting North Britain to South Britain. Wales and England constitute South Britain, which also includes the central isthmus, or as it is called, the North of England. That isthmus has a backbone of upland, the Pennine Moors, which end southward in the Peak of Derbyshire.

From the Peak southward to the Channel, and from the Welsh Upland eastward to the North Sea, lies the fertile English plain, roughly a square measuring two hundred miles each way. A small river, the Thames, flows from west to east across

nearly the whole breadth of this plain. The considerable tides of the British Seas enter the mouth of the Thames, converting what would otherwise be a mere creek into a noble estuary. Near the head of this estuary a bridge was built by the Romans, and the City of London grew up round the bridge, chiefly on the north bank. The city



FIG. 3.—LONDON BRIDGE IN THE YEAR 1599.
Note the sea-going ships below but not above the bridge.

was fortified, and the walls were maintained until modern times.

London became an important city because it was accessible from the sea by the tideway of the Thames, and stood in the midst of the rich plain of South Britain. It was the chief market and the chief port of that plain. Even as late as the reign of King James II, little more than two hundred years ago, when London had a

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population of half a million, no other city in Britain had more than thirty thousand inhabitants, and none but Bristol, Norwich, and Edinburgh had more than ten thousand. Thus for many centuries the English were an agricultural people with a single great city in their midst. The industries, merely manual and domestic, were in the Middle Ages largely concentrated in London, whence travelling pedlars visited the local fairs. Coal was utilized only for giving warmth, being brought by sea from Newcastle-on-Tyne to London. Therefore



FIG. 4.—LONDON AND THE TIDAL THAMES.

Contrast the wide bends of the river to the head of the tideway near Kingston with the small and frequent bends above that point. The former are due to the strong tidal currents, the latter to the relatively feeble stream from the hills.

it was known as sea-coal to distinguish it from charcoal, which was the usual fuel of the inland and forested parts of the country.

In contrast with the English plain round London are the hills of the north and west of Britain. In Cornwall and Devon, in Wales, in the North of England, in Scotland, and in Ireland the hills cover an area nearly twice as great as that of the English plain. Placed along the oceanic side of the country the hilly districts receive from the prevalent west winds an amount of moisture which in most parts is excessive for the purposes of agri-

culture. Except therefore in the relatively small plains of Ireland and Scotland the population of the north and west was in all the earlier centuries sparse and comparatively poor. On the other hand, owing to the difficult character of the country, the hill peoples could resist invasion with greater ease than could the people of the plain. Moreover the very fertility and wealth of the English plain constituted an attraction for the conqueror.

So it happened that three times over in the course of our early history the plain of England was conquered, but the hill peoples of the north and west retained their independence. First the Romans conquered South Britain, but neither the Highlands of Scotland nor Ireland. Then the English crossed the North Sea from the mouth of the Elbe and conquered South Britain to the foot of the Welsh Hills, but were there brought to a stand by the Celtic refugees whom they had swept from the plain. Finally the Normans sailed from near the mouth of the Seine and conquered England, but not Scotland, Ireland, or Wales. Thus the plain of which London is centre came to be distinguished from the hilly countries of the north and west, not only by its populous and wealthy condition, but also to a considerable extent by differences of blood and speech. For several centuries English history was essentially the history of the people of the plain and of their great city London. The Celtic fringe of the British islands had a very interesting but separate history.

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FIG. 5.—BATTLE ABBEY.

Founded, near Hastings, by William the Conqueror on the site of the Battle fought in 1066

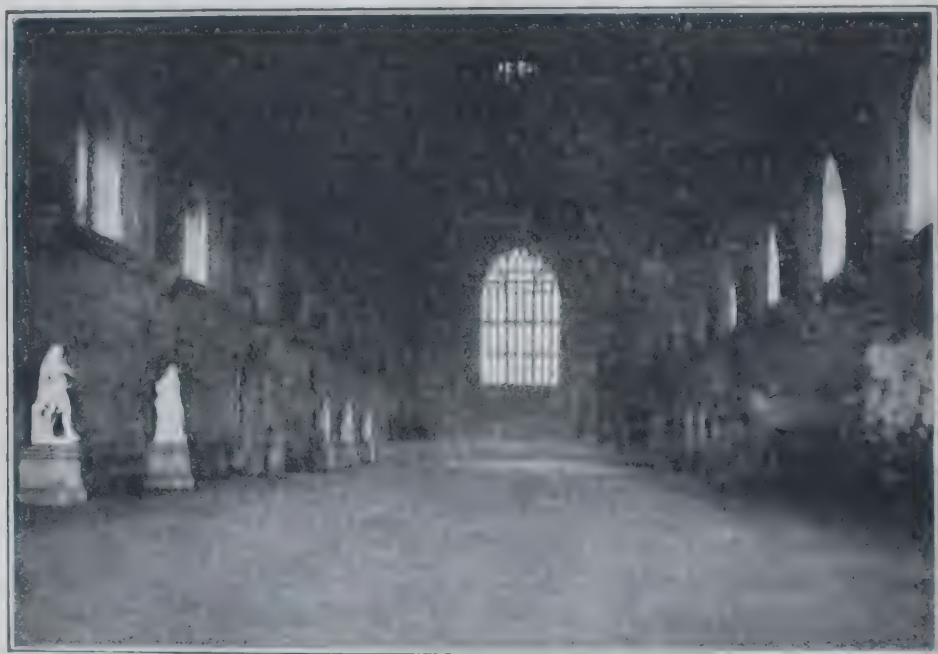
It is true, of course, that the early English did not at first form a single kingdom. They were divided into a number of tribes, of which the chief were the West Saxons, the Mercians, and the Northumbrians. Alfred the Great, King of the West Saxons, and his children and grand-children first united England by hard fighting. Two centuries later William the Norman, the Conqueror, completed the work of Alfred by crushing the last remnants of Northumbrian and Mercian independence, except in that northern part of Northumbria called Lothian, which was incorporated with Scotland.

William the Conqueror, by his iron rule, gave peace to the English plain, then peopled by some two million inhabitants. London had in his time perhaps fifty thousand people, and in the rest of the country there were merely villages. Because of the Norman order in the land, and the security of property, England reared great flocks of sheep at a time when disorder on the Continent and in Ireland and most of Scotland made it generally impossible to pasture sheep in the open in those countries. But England did not manufacture her own wool, nor did she for the most part own the ships by which her wool was exported to the walled cities of Flanders where it was spun into yarn and woven into cloth. Bruges and Ghent were the chief of the Flemish cities, but the ships which conducted the trade to and from London belonged to the cities of the Hanseatic League. Of these two of the principal were Hamburg and Bremen, at the head of the Elbe and Weser estuaries. In London the foreign shipmen were known as Hansards, or more often as Easterlings. They lodged when in the city in a walled and fortified enclosure, called the Steelyard. We still refer to their high commercial credit in the expression "Pound Sterling," or Easterling, and the Wool-sack, on which the Lord Chancellor is seated when he presides over the House of Lords, still records the fact that the English King raised his chief revenue from an export duty on English wool.

The King of England had his palace at West-

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minster, outside the walls of London, and in the great Hall of that palace assembled his Parliament. The wealth and the power of London gave strength to the party in Parliament which resisted despotism on the part of the monarch. Hence there grew up our Limited Monarchy, and the habit of free yet orderly government which has been England's



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FIG. 6.—WESTMINSTER HALL.

The Kings of England lived in Westminster Palace until the time of Henry VIII.

greatest contribution to civilization. Parliamentary Government sprang up in France at the same time as in England, but the King of France had to deal with several Parliaments, which sat at Paris, at Rouen, and in other cities. The power of each of these Parliaments was small as against the power of the King. The result was that the

French King became supreme and despotic and his Parliaments dwindled, whereas the English Parliament had authority over the whole English kingdom, and that kingdom contained only one great city. Together with the barons of the realm, the Mayor of London sealed Magna Charta.

During the later Middle Ages England, Flanders, and the Hanseatic cities were close allies. The estuary of the Thames opens eastward to the North Sea, and in the mainland shore opposite are other great estuaries—Scheldt, Rhine, Weser, and Elbe. Traffic was easy between these havens, and could easily be forwarded up the rivers. With the west and north of Britain on the other hand communications from London were relatively difficult in times when inland traffic was mostly by river. The chief streams of the plain, the Thames and the Humber, which flow to the eastern sea, are not derived from the Welsh Hills. The western rivers, the Severn and the Dee, do not traverse the English plain but bend away towards Ireland. At their mouths were small ports, Bristol and Chester, which conducted an Irish trade. It is true that England early conquered both Wales and Ireland, but from neither did she draw appreciable strength or riches. They were foreign provinces mainly of Celtic speech, and in most parts of small productivity. The north of England, although inhabited by an English population, was also, as we have seen, relatively

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poor and sparsely peopled, except in the Vale of York. Beyond the Border Hills lay the small plain of central Scotland, with its separate English-

speaking nation, and still farther northward the Celtic Highlands. The little Scottish people maintained its independence partly by reason of the remote position and defensible character of Scotland, but partly also by virtue of the long alliance between Scotland and France.



FIG. 7.—ENGLAND AND NORTHERN FRANCE.

Note that the old provinces of France and the early divisions of England are of a similar size.

England's southern neighbour was France, round Paris on the river Seine. Southampton Water lies opposite to the estuary of the Seine, but no great valley extends through the English plain from Southampton, which has thus a very different importance from London. Moreover France and England had not a commercial interchange equi-

valent to that conducted between England and Flanders. Thus we see that the relations of London were chiefly eastward with Hamburg and Bremen and Ghent and Bruges, and also in smaller degree westward through Bristol and Chester to Waterford and Dublin. But France and Scotland formed an alliance hostile to English power.

It was as farmers in the agricultural plain round London and Westminster, as traders within the walls of London, as members of Parliament at Westminster, as governors of Wales and Ireland, as enemies of Scotland and France, and as friends of Flanders and the Hanseatic League that the English grew rich and free, and became a united and powerful people. Under Queen Elizabeth they defeated the Great Armada and broke the power of Spain. That English victory was the "crowning mercy" of our early history.

During the Middle Ages, notwithstanding the wars with Scotland and France, the whole region which has been described in this chapter, that is to say the land on either hand of the Narrow Seas, was in one respect united. English, French, Scotch, Irish, Welsh, Flemings, and Hansards all obeyed the Pope of Rome. The result of the English victory over the Armada was to establish the division of western Europe between two religions—Roman Catholic and Protestant. Had the Spanish King been victorious he would have sought to crush both Protestantism and Free Government in England, Scotland, and Holland.

CHAPTER II. HOLLAND

IN the last chapter we read of Britain and of the European coast opposite as they were towards the close of the Middle Ages. France and Scotland were allied in hostility to England, but England for commercial reasons was in close relation with Flanders and the Hanseatic cities, and she had conquered Wales and Ireland. The Spaniards were fighting their last wars for the expulsion of the Mohammedan Moors from Europe. The Pope of Rome was still everywhere supreme in the Western Church. The New World was unknown.

Great events took place at the beginning of Modern Times, some four hundred years ago, which changed the whole aspect of British and European affairs. To understand these events we must consider for a few moments the history of a certain family which held rule in many parts of Europe. The Hapsburgs are still the Imperial family of Austria. Their first home was the castle of Hapsburg in Switzerland. Before they went to Vienna the Counts of Hapsburg fought with the Swiss mountaineers, and were defeated by them. The story of this was told in our second volume.

All western and central Europe, from the Pyrenees to the plains of Russia, owed allegiance at



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FIG. 8.—THE REMAINS OF THE CASTLE OF HAPSBURG IN SWITZERLAND.
The Castle stands high on a hill overlooking the confluence of the chief headwaters of the Rhine.

the beginning of the sixteenth century to two great sovereigns, the King of France at Paris and the Hapsburg Emperor at Vienna. The boundary between the two realms ran through the Netherlands, in such manner that the Count of Flanders acknowledged the suzerainty of Paris, and the Count of Holland that of Vienna. But the King of France and the Emperor were merely overlords in the Netherlands, and the immediate masters were the Counts of Flanders and Holland, and other counts and dukes.

Some time before the period with which this chapter deals, it happened that the family of the County of Holland almost died out, and there was only a daughter left. This daughter, Countess of Holland, was ejected from her county

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by Philip, Duke of Burgundy, whose seat was at Dijon in France. Philip's son is known in history as Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy and Count of Holland. In one way and another all the Counties and Duchies of the Netherlands, including the County of Flanders, fell into the hands of Duke Charles, who left no son but only a daughter, Mary. She married Maximilian Hapsburg, the son of the Emperor at Vienna. Thus it came about that the Hapsburg family ruled both in Austria and in the Netherlands.

Let us turn our attention for a moment to Spain where, apart from Portugal, there were two principal kingdoms, Castile which contained Madrid, and Aragon which contained Barcelona. King Ferdinand of Aragon married Queen Isabella of Castile, and so united Spain. It was this Queen Isabella who in 1492 sent the Italian pilot Columbus to discover the New World. These same sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella, took the fortress of Granada from the Moors, and so ended the long wars in the peninsula between the Christians and the Mohammedans.

The family tree printed on the next page shows the whole matter. We see there that Ferdinand of Aragon married Isabella of Castile, and also that Maximilian Hapsburg of Austria married Mary of the Netherlands and Burgundy. Then it is shown that Philip I, the son of Maximilian and Mary, married Johanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. This Philip it was whose

name is preserved on the other side of the globe in the Philippine Islands, discovered by the navigator Magellan. Johanna's sister, Catharine of Aragon, married King Henry VIII of England. Lastly we see that Philip and Johanna had a son, Charles, who became the Emperor Charles V. He ruled over all the territories which had belonged to his four grandparents, over Austria and the Netherlands and Castile and Aragon. As Emperor he was suzerain, or overlord, of the many principalities of Germany and Northern Italy, including the city republics of the Hanseatic League. In the reign of Charles V took place the Protestant Reformation.

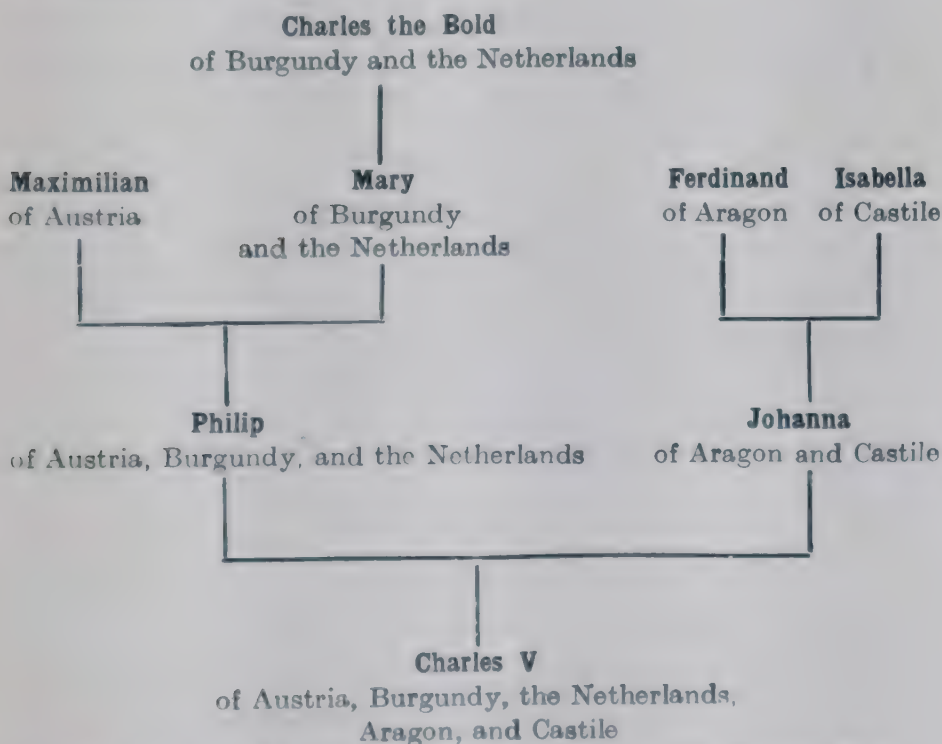


FIG. 9.—GENEALOGICAL TREE OF THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.

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Some distance up the river Elbe from the Hanseatic port of Hamburg is the little town of Wittenberg, the seat of a University in the times we speak of. There a certain monk, Martin



FIG. 10.—THE DOMINIONS OF THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.

Luther, was teacher and preacher. The great cathedral of St. Peter was being erected at Rome, and the Pope distributed Indulgences, or promises of forgiveness of sins, to those who found money

for the undertaking. When the Pope's emissary came with Indulgences into the neighbourhood of Wittenberg, Luther denounced him for corrupting the Church.

So the quarrel began. Presently the Lutherans, as the followers



FIG. II.—HAMBURG, WITTENBERG, AND BERLIN.

of the monk were called, *protested* against other practices of the Mediaeval Church, and were hence called Protestants. As already shown in our second volume, the princes of North Germany, and among them the Elector of Brandenburg, whose residence was at Berlin, sided with Luther, but the Emperor took the part of the Pope.

The new views spread into Switzerland, and there, in the French-speaking city of Geneva, a second teacher arose, Calvin by name, who became almost as famous as Luther. He was of a sterner character, and the breach between the Calvinists and Rome was even deeper than that between the Lutherans and Rome. Now the city of Geneva was a little republic, and Calvin modelled the organization of his new Church on the principle of a republic.* In other words he did away with

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bishops, and introduced the Presbyterian form of Church government. Calvinistic Protestantism spread from Geneva into France, where the Protestants were called Huguenots, and into the Netherlands, and to England, and to Scotland. Everywhere it came into conflict with the estab-

lished authority of the Roman Catholic bishops.

In England, however, Protestantism took a new turn. There King Henry VIII had a quarrel with the Pope, for he desired a divorce from his queen, Catherine of Aragon. As a result, the English Church, with its archbishops and bishops, was separated from the Roman Church of the Con-

tinent, and became the Church of England. This Church adopted Protestant views, but retained its bishops.

The Emperor Charles V abdicated in the year 1555. His territories were divided in such manner that his son Philip II took Spain and the Netherlands, whereas his brother Ferdinand took Austria



FIG. 12.—GENEVA AND ORANGE.

and became Emperor. Now Philip II married Queen Mary of England, the daughter of Henry VIII. She was a Roman Catholic, and the intention of Philip was to reinstate the Roman Church in England. But Mary died, and her



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FIG. 13.—ST. GILES'S CATHEDRAL, EDINBURGH

sister Elizabeth, who was a Protestant, ascended the English throne.

At this time the Scots were also ruled by a queen, the beautiful Queen Mary, who married the King of France, but was early left a widow. Mary was a Roman Catholic, and maintained the French alli-

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ance against England, but the Scottish Protestants under John Knox, who became minister of St. Giles's Church in Edinburgh, adopted Calvinism, and founded the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. After a long struggle they drove their queen into exile, and after many years she was executed by Queen Elizabeth of England. The Scottish



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FIG. 14.—ST. GILES'S CATHEDRAL, EDINBURGH—INTERIOR.

Protestants, being opposed to Queen Mary, who was assisted from France, came to detest the French alliance, and were therefore thrown for support on to Queen Elizabeth of England. So it happened that, on account of the Reformation, Scotland and England became friends for the first time, and France lost her northern ally. At

the death of Queen Elizabeth her cousin James VI of Scotland became King also of England, where he was known as James I. Notwithstanding his rightful claim, for he was great-grandson of Henry VIII's sister Margaret, he would probably never have ascended the English throne had Scotland still remained England's enemy.

In France, at the time of the Reformation, there were long religious wars, and for more than a generation, while Elizabeth reigned in England, civil war reduced the power of the kings of France. So it happened that for a time Spain and Austria were the only strong friends of the Pope and of the Roman Catholic Church. Their monarchs were both, as we have seen, of the Hapsburg family.

Philip II, king of Spain, determined to crush the Protestants in the Netherlands. He sent merciless governors, and supported them with an army. The cities of the Netherlands, that is to say of the countries which we now call Belgium and Holland, rose in rebellion. They found an heroic leader in William the Silent, Prince of Orange. The little city and district of Orange are on the river Rhone and now belong to France, but William had property also in the Netherlands. The war lasted for many years, and resulted in the separation of the Netherlands into two parts. In the south, which is now Belgium, the Spaniards succeeded in repressing the rising. They crushed out Protestantism, and Belgium came to be known as the Spanish Netherlands. In the north, however, all

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their efforts in sixty years of warfare were of no avail, and a new state, known as the United Netherlands, won its independence. We often speak of this State as Holland, from its richest and most populous province. Protestantism was saved in Holland.

To understand the extraordinary resistance offered by the Northern Netherlands to mighty Spain we must return for a moment to earlier history. When the English and Saxon tribes crossed the North Sea to Britain they left a part of their nation in the plains of North Germany and in the Rhine Delta. So arose the Saxon or Low Dutch race of the Germans. In the German language Germany is known as Deutschland or Dutchland. Low Dutch is the language of the northern plains, and High Dutch of the southern uplands of Germany. The tongue spoken by educated Germans in the present time is for the most part High Dutch. To-day it is the English practice to confine the word Dutch to the inhabitants of the Rhine Delta or Holland, but our great-grandfathers meant German when they said Dutch. The fact is that until within the last three hundred years the country which we now know as Holland was a part of Germany.

The Rhine Delta is fronted along the sea coast by a belt of sand dunes swept up from the sea shore by the winds. These dunes are pierced by the various river mouths. In the Middle Ages there were low reedy islands in the marshes between the rivers in rear of the dunes, and fishermen speaking a Low

Dutch tongue had established themselves on these islands. Gradually, by the erection of long lines of dyke, the water was banked out from the neighbouring shoals, and the islands were extended. They became rich meadows, supporting milk-giving cattle, and small cities grew up as the market towns of the increasing country. Among these were Haarlem, and Leiden, and Amsterdam, and Rotterdam, and the Hague, which was the capital of the County of Holland. At last the tidal water was confined to a broad shallow lagoon, called the *Zuider Zee*, which means the South Sea, as opposed to the North Sea outside, and Holland became a low-lying peninsula, with the ocean to the west and the *Zuider Zee* to the east, and the mouths of the Rhine, Meuse, and Scheldt to the south.

From time to time, when very high tides coincided with storms at sea, or when the great Rhine came down in flood from the distant Alps, the dykes were breached and the water spread over the meadows with disastrous effect. Therefore the people of Holland were schooled in a stern discipline. Every man knew his place in the time of danger, and the whole country was organized for continuous warfare with the threatening waters. When the various families of dukes and counts died out, and the rule of the country was concentrated, as we have just learnt, in the hands of distant monarchs—at first the Duke of Burgundy, then the Emperor at Vienna, and finally the King of Spain—these cities and provinces, disciplined

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by their long struggle with the elements, easily organized their local governments in republican form. When the Reformation came it was the Calvinistic view which naturally adapted itself to the dour character and republican ways of the Dutch people. The struggle with Spain emphasised their Protestantism.

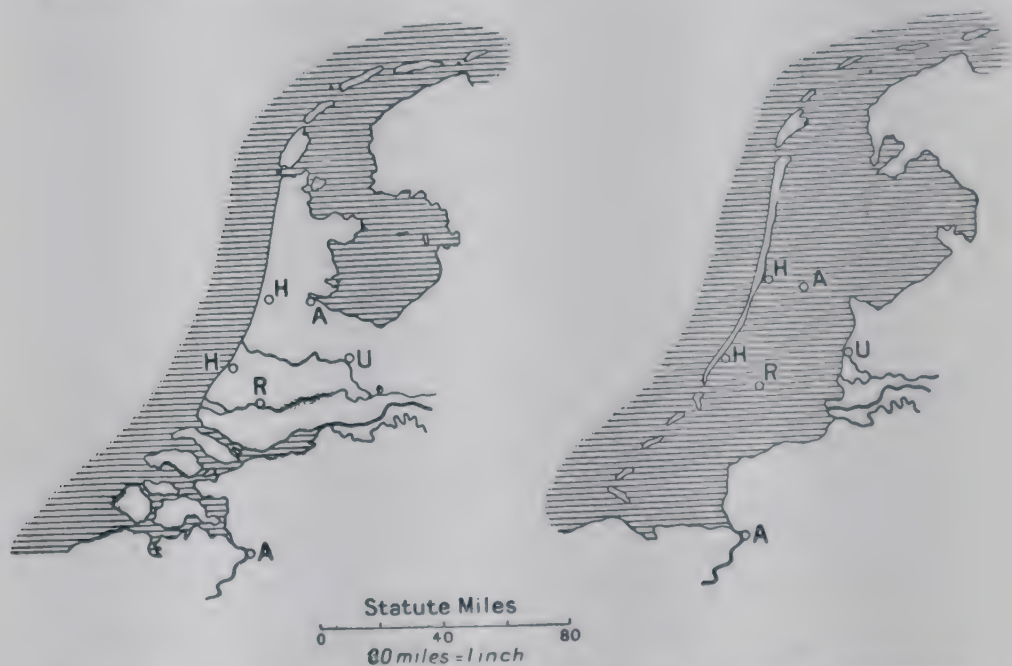


FIG. 15.—THE EFFECT OF A GREAT FLOOD IN HOLLAND, WERE ALL THE DYKES TO GIVE WAY.

By a most remarkable combination of circumstances Holland not only won freedom but also made her fortune in the war with Spain. To protect the Dutch cities from military attack the fields were often laid under water. This form of defence was of peculiar efficacy, for armies could not cross the flooded country with its hidden ditches, nor yet could ships venture over the hidden shoals. But

the produce of the fields was lost, and food had to be brought from a distance. Therefore the Dutch mariners grew bold under the spur of necessity, and built up a great foreign commerce while Holland was still in rebellion against Spain. Prior to the war, the Dutch were in the habit of retailing the spices and other wares of the East from Lisbon along the northern coasts of Europe, for the Portuguese confined their attention to direct commerce from the Indies to Lisbon. But Portugal was conquered by Spain and held subject for many years, so that Lisbon was no longer accessible to the ships of the rebel Dutch. Therefore the sea captains of Amsterdam and the other Dutch ports were obliged to venture on far voyages, attacking and conquering both in the Spanish West Indies and the Portuguese East Indies. Thus it happened that, while the Dutch were merely rebels against Spain, Amsterdam rose to be the chief commercial centre of the world.

In the year 1588 Philip II determined to make a supreme effort to regain ascendancy. He equipped a great fleet or Armada, and sent it from Spain, bound in the first instance for the Spanish Netherlands, but destined ultimately for the invasion of England. The Protestant Queen Elizabeth was giving help to the Dutch, and Philip saw that if he could crush England, his armies would ultimately overcome Holland. Protestantism would then be trampled out of Europe.

The Armada was to have conveyed a Spanish

army from the Netherlands to land on the shores of England. In our first book was reprinted the poem written by Lord Macaulay, which tells how the news that the Armada had been sighted in the English Channel was sent by beacon fire from hill to hill through all the length and breadth of our land. The small but handy English ships attacked the unwieldy vessels of the Armada, and caused such havoc among them that the Spaniards were defeated before ever they reached the Netherlands. They took refuge at Calais, and there the English sent among them ships on fire, and threw them into disorder, so that they fled northward through the North Sea, and round the North of Scotland, and by the West of Ireland. A few only regained Spain, the remainder being wrecked and lost. Thus Holland and Britain were saved, and with them the Protestant Faith and Free Government.

The religious wars came to an end in France when Henry of Navarre, the leader of the Protestants, ascended the throne in 1589, but in 1593 accepted the Roman Catholic Faith. France was once more united and powerful. She had fallen back, however, under the rule of a despotic king, and she had lost her Scottish ally.

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CHAPTER III. ENGLAND AND HOLLAND

IN the first chapter we saw the condition of affairs at the close of the Middle Ages four hundred years ago. In the second chapter we learned of the great change effected by the Protestant Reformation and the defeat of the Armada three hundred years ago. We have now to advance to a new phase of the situation in Europe, which occurred about two hundred years ago. The United Netherlands had at this time become one of the most important States in Europe. Each of the eight provinces constituting the Union was a little republic with its own Parliament, or as the Dutch said, with its own meeting of the States or Estates. We use that word in England in the expression the "Three Estates of the Realm," that is to say the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons in Parliament assembled. The eight provinces of the United Netherlands were leagued into a Federation, and for their common affairs had a Parliament known as the States General. We find geographical record of this Dutch Parliament in "Staaten" Island off the south of South America, and "Staten" Island in New York Harbour. Holland was by far the most important of the leagued provinces,

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and hence it is that the name Holland has come to be commonly used for the whole country.

In the seventeenth century the Dutch grew to be very rich and prosperous. Amsterdam was the

most important city in the world. The Dutch maintained a powerful fleet, which fought on equal terms with the fleet of England, often inflicting defeat upon us. On one occasion, during the reign of Charles II, the Dutch



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FIG. 16.—THE PALACE OF THE STATES GENERAL
AT THE HAGUE.

burnt the English ships at Chatham, and sailed up the Thames so that their guns were heard in London. Notwithstanding their activity and wealth, however, and their great colonial possessions and trade, the Dutch were after all only a small nation. They defeated the distant Spaniards, and Spain gradually ceased to be feared, but when the Civil Wars were over in France, that great country, close

neighbour to Holland, began to threaten Dutch independence. The large and fertile territory of France maintained a population several times



FIG. 17.—THE NETHERLANDS.

The territory of the Bishopric of Liege broke the Spanish Netherlands into two parts.

that of England, and many times that of Holland. The King of France had no effective Parliament to limit his prerogative, and so it came about that in the latter half of the seventeenth century Louis

XIV was able to say "I am the State." Louis lived in the Palace of Versailles, outside Paris, away from the pressure of the mob, and his personal will moved all the great resources of his kingdom. His generals attacked the Spanish Netherlands, and repeatedly carried the war into the United Netherlands beyond.

In such circumstances it was evident that sooner or later, unless some vital change were effected in the position of affairs, France would conquer the Netherlands. At this time the most important man among the Dutch was the Staat-holder or President of the Province of Holland. He was Prince William of Orange, a descendant of the hero of the rebellion against Spain. At one time the threat from France was such that William laid his plans to sail away with all the best of the Dutch nation to the Eastern Seas, there to establish a New Holland in the island of Java, whose capital is Batavia. But relief was ultimately found in Europe itself.

While William was Staatholder in Holland, and Louis XIV was King in France, the Stuart family ruled in England and Scotland. For many years the power of the King in England had been reduced, owing to the Civil War with the Parliament, and the later Stuarts, Charles II and his brother James II, in their anxiety to be despotic and to rule without a Parliament, accepted the money of the King of France. Thus Protestant England and Scotland were ranged for a time with Catholic

France against Protestant Holland. But the people of England came gradually to realize the danger to their own liberties if the Stuart kings were allowed to prevail, and were hence willing to accept Dutch help for the overthrow of James



FIG. 18. --ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND THE NETHERLANDS.

II. This course was the more possible because William of Orange had married Mary, the daughter of James II, and it was thus only a little change which was necessary, for the throne would remain in the same family. Dutch William, however, saw further than the majority of people in England. The freedom of Europe and not merely of Britain

was at stake. It was to defeat the ambition of Louis XIV, and to prevent France from conquering Europe that William undertook to overthrow the English King.

In the year 1688 the Dutch fleet sailed for England, but was driven back by contrary winds. Again it set sail, and the guards along all the east of England and Scotland were on the alert, but the wind was favourable for the Strait of Dover, and William took that course. His fleet passed through the Strait in line abreast, so that the ships on the extreme right were close to the English coast, and those on the left were close to the French coast. The cliffs of Dover were crowded with spectators. The Dutch bore down the Channel until they reached the coast of Devon, and there William landed at Torbay. The small Dutch army marched by short stages upon London. At first the English malcontents were timid and slow to join, but presently Churchill, Lord Marlborough, came over to the Prince with a part of the royal army. No fighting took place, except in one or two small skirmishes, and when William arrived in London King James fled to France. The Parliaments of England and Scotland made a Declaration of their Rights, and this declaration William accepted. He and his wife Mary were then proclaimed King and Queen of England and Scotland. A few years later the English and Scottish Parliaments were merged and England and Scotland were united into a single

kingdom, with a single Parliament, under the name of Great Britain.

Before this happened, however, England underwent considerable danger. Louis XIV declared war on King William as soon as King James landed as a fugitive in France, and the war lasted with one short interval of peace from 1689 until 1713. At first the French had the better of the English fleet, and we were in much danger of invasion. But Admiral Russell inflicted a decisive defeat on the French fleet off Cape La Hogue in Normandy and established the insular security of Britain, which was maintained during the remainder of the struggle.

William died about midway through these great wars, and was succeeded by Queen Anne, under whom the contest was triumphantly prosecuted on the Continent of Europe by John Churchill, now become Duke of Marlborough. The war against France was waged by a group of allies—British, Dutch, and German—for France was by far the strongest power in Europe. So it happened that British troops found themselves fighting in the heart of the Continent. Marlborough's great victory over the French at Blenheim was on the banks of the Upper Danube. At last peace was made by a treaty signed at Utrecht in Holland. France had failed to conquer Europe, because William of Orange had overthrown the Stuarts, and brought the strength of England into alliance with that of Holland.

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Why was it that England struggled under Elizabeth against Spanish supremacy on the Continent of Europe, and under William III and Anne against French supremacy? The reason was that England had but a small population, and were the Continent united under a single government, that government, being free from the necessity of maintaining armies, might concentrate its wealth on the building of a fleet to invade and conquer Britain—such a fleet as must overwhelm any force which could be afforded by the resources of our small land and people. Therefore it is that we have always sided with freedom in Europe and against despotism and conquest.

The arrival of the Prince of Orange and the flight of James II constitute what is known in English history as the Revolution. Two great changes in our government were the result. In the first place it was finally settled that Parliament was here supreme, for the new King was seated on the throne by an Act of Parliament, and His ministers were made responsible to Parliament, and had to resign if they were not supported by a majority in Parliament. This is the system known as Responsible Government. It differs from the Mediaeval Government of England in that the ministers were then appointed by the King and were responsible only to him, though the Parliament had already won from the King the right of granting or withholding supplies of money to be raised by taxation. In

the second place men had learned toleration in the matter of religion. They were tired of civil wars on account of religious differences.

One great contribution, however, to the art of Free Government was made by Holland and not by England. We owe to the example of the Dutch the spread of the idea of Federation. The Dutch provinces had been separate states and were jealous of interference from without. It was therefore agreed that each should continue to rule itself, but that delegates should be sent to serve in a central parliament charged with the affairs common to all the provinces. Hence the name of the United Netherlands.

CHAPTER IV. NEW ENGLAND

WE pass forward to a period only a hundred and fifty years ago. For a few moments we must turn our attention to the plain of North Germany lying eastward of Holland. Although lately much improved by scientific cultivation, it is not naturally a fertile region. At the time of which we speak its undulating sandy soil, with boggy hollows, was clothed for the most part with open heath and scrubby pine wood. Broad slow rivers, frozen in the winter, were the chief means of communication through the roadless waste. The cultivated areas produced rye, not wheat, and the population was relatively sparse.

In this unpromising land lay the territories of the Electors of Hanover and Brandenburg, two of the Protestant princes whose families had risen in significance by resisting the Emperor at Vienna in the time of Martin Luther and afterwards. Early in the eighteenth century these two Electors suddenly increased to a European importance. The Elector of Hanover ascended the throne of Britain as George I, by virtue of an Act of Parliament known as the Act of Settlement. He was descended from Elizabeth, daughter of

James I. Thus Britain and Hanover, though they remained separate States, came to be ruled by one sovereign. On the other hand, the Elector of Brandenburg inherited the Duchy of Prussia on the shores of the Baltic, and declared himself King of Prussia, although his capital remained at Berlin in Brandenburg. The second King of



FIG. 19.—THE KINGDOM OF FREDERICK THE GREAT AND THE ELECTORATE OF HANOVER.

Prussia organized a strong army, notwithstanding the poverty of his relatively small dominions. He may be said to have converted his country into a standing camp, for the civil population was heavily burdened with the support of the soldiers. On no other condition could a strong power be built up at Berlin, for there were no natural defences in the broad plain.

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The third King of Prussia was Frederick the Great. He made use of the army which his father bequeathed to him. He attacked Austria, and took from her the province of Silesia on the upper River Oder, of which Breslau is the capital,

and thus increased his resources. By that act, however, he roused jealousies, so that some years afterwards he was attacked by an alliance of three great Powers, France, Austria, and Russia. Even against their vast strength he gained many bril-



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FIG. 20.—STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT
AT BERLIN.

liant victories, though he suffered also some severe defeats. There can be little doubt, however, that he would have been crushed had not his neighbour the Elector of Hanover, who was also King of England, stood by him. Not only did England send supplies of money to Frederick,

but she also despatched an army into Hanover, which won the battle of Minden. The war lasted for seven years, from 1756 to 1763, and during the whole of that time Britain succeeded in protecting Frederick's western frontier, and thus saved him from the worst of the French attack, although at times the Russians and the Austrians penetrated even to Berlin. In the end, when the Peace was made, Frederick retained Silesia. He was the founder of the modern power of Prussia.

For Britain, however, the Seven Years' War had greater consequences outside Europe. Her great Prime Minister, William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, organized her forces with such consummate skill, and inspired the nation with such enthusiasm, that in the year 1759—we have it from a letter-writer of the time, Horace Walpole—men woke each morning asking where was the new victory. In that war Britain became strong both in India and in North America. Of the Indian Empire we will speak later: we must confine our attention just now to North America. It will be remembered that the French had there founded settlements on the St. Lawrence river, that the Dutch had established New Amsterdam at the mouth of the Hudson river, and that the English had formed colonies both in New England, north of the Dutch settlements, and in Virginia, south of them. New Amsterdam fell to the English in the days of Charles II, and thus all the Atlantic shore became British, except the peninsulas at the

mouth of the St. Lawrence. The French, however, pushed through the interior, from the great lakes of the St. Lawrence system down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, founding the colony of Louisiana, so named after their King Louis. The cities of Montreal or Mount Royal, St. Louis, and New Orleans still record the pathway of French adventure from sea to sea in rear of the British colonies of the east coast.

At the time of the Seven Years' War, the British fleet having defeated the French fleet, and France being occupied with her struggle against Prussia and Hanover, Britain was free to send an army to the St. Lawrence under General Wolfe, and this army, reinforced by regiments from the British colonies in the neighbourhood, attacked and took the French fortress of Quebec on the great river. The result was that in 1763, by the Peace of Paris, all North America east of the Mississippi became British, although there was a population of eighty thousand Frenchmen in Canada, and smaller French colonies were in Louisiana.

For some years after 1763 there was peace both in Europe and America. But a quarrel gradually arose between Britain and her colonies. Much money had been spent in the conquest of the French possessions in America, and the Home Government held that part of this ought to be raised in the colonies, for they had profited most by the removal of the French rivalry. The claim was undoubtedly just, but the colonies

had no representation in the British Parliament, and they resented the idea that they should be taxed without their own consent. The Home Government finally determined that there should be a duty on tea imported to America, but the



FIG. 21.—THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

colonists threw the tea into Boston Harbour. A long civil war ensued.

The colonists were commanded by a gentleman of Virginia, a country squire as we should say, George Washington, who proved himself to be a

great general and a man of noble character. None the less, they would have been defeated had a sufficient British army been despatched over the Atlantic, and had the campaign been conducted on our side with skill and energy. But muddle succeeded muddle, until at last a British force advancing southward from Montreal, under the



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FIG. 22.—GIBRALTAR.

Seen from the north, that is to say from the low isthmus known as the Neutral Ground.

command of General Burgoyne, had to surrender to the colonists at Saratoga. A second British army which should have been despatched from New York by the Hudson Valley failed to give assistance in time.

At this juncture France intervened to avenge her losses under the Treaty of Paris, and the King of

Prussia refused to come to the aid of Britain because Britain had forsaken him at the time of the Treaty of Paris, so that he had been obliged to make terms with his enemies less advantageous than might otherwise have been possible. A French soldier, Lafayette, went to America, and helped to organize the colonial forces, and the French fleet



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FIG. 23.—GIBRALTAR.

Seen from the south, that is to say from Europa Point.

for a time obtained control of the Atlantic, with the result that the whole British army under the command of General Cornwallis surrendered to General Washington at Yorktown on the coast of Virginia. Britain made peace, and recognized the independence of the United Colonies, or as they now called themselves, the United States of America.

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The war was not, however, wholly inglorious for us. Gibraltar, besieged by land and water by a great force of French and Spaniards, held out for a whole year, and has remained British to this day. Moreover the French in Canada stood loyal to



FIG. 24.—NORTH AMERICA AT THE BEGINNING OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Britain. They repelled both the diplomatic advances and the military attack of the American colonists, for Britain had treated them with great liberality in the interval after the Treaty of Paris. They had freedom under the British flag in regard

to their French speech, their French laws, and their Roman Catholic Faith.

The original United States were thirteen in number, ranged from north to south along the Atlantic coast. Their government was organized in part



FIG. 25.—NORTH AMERICA AT THE END OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

after the Dutch model and in part after the English. Each state formed a separate and independent community like the provinces of the United Netherlands, and the States were leagued together into a Federation, precisely as in the case of

the Netherlands. The Federal Capital was established at Washington on the Potomac river, about midway along the strip of inhabited country between the state of Maine in the north and the state of Georgia in the south.

The Federal Constitution was written, and defined those rights which the states entrusted to the Federal Government. The remaining rights belonged to the several states. In the United Kingdom we have of course an unwritten Constitution. The American Legislature, Executive, and Judicature were kept apart as checks to one another for the prevention of despotism. The Legislature makes the law, the Executive Officials administer the law, and the Judicature decides when there have been breaches of the law, whether by private citizens or administrative officials, and awards compensation and punishment.

In the United States the Judicature, or Judges, have the power of deciding whether the Legislature in making any given law has broken the written Constitution. In that case the new law is of no effect, and the Judges refuse to enforce it. The Legislature is under such circumstances said to have acted *ultra vires* or "beyond its powers." No such question can arise with us, for we have no written constitution.

In another important respect the government of the United States differs from that of the United Kingdom. The highest officials; that is to say

the Ministry, are responsible in the United States only to the President, who is the head of the Executive. Thus America has not Responsible Government, such as we have in Britain. The Ministers are not responsible to the majority of the Legislature, as with us. They cannot be dismissed by an adverse vote of the Legislature.

At the time when the break with the mother country took place, the American colonies contained only some two million people. At that time there were fourteen or fifteen millions in the United Kingdom. We do not know the number accurately, for the first census was not taken until 1801.

Thus failed Britain's first endeavour to build a great empire, but a deep lesson was learned by her rulers, which became the foundation of her present success. The mother country now leaves the self-governing Dominions beyond the seas to tax themselves, and to settle for themselves in what way they will contribute to the strength of the empire. They remain voluntarily within the empire, partly because they love the mother country and wish to help her, and partly because they value the strength which the rest of the empire brings to each of them in competition with foreign countries.

CHAPTER V. FRANCE

WE now come to a time little more than a hundred years ago, and the centre of our story is transferred to Paris. Let us pause, however, in order to make sure that we grasp the full meaning of the last four chapters, and their bearing on what is to follow.

The English were originally a nation of farmers settled in a fertile plain at the continental end of the long island of Great Britain. Sturdy, independent men, they were compelled to sink their local differences by the rule of warlike kings, Alfred and William. So the English nation early became united, and there was peace and prosperity in the plain. A great city grew up in its midst, and one king and one parliament made an effective government, so that there were both order and freedom in the land. To the north and west the English were bordered merely by hill tribes, and to the east and south by the Narrow Seas. They were thus able to refuse to maintain a standing army which might become a weapon of royal oppression. There was no similar danger to be feared from a fleet, but it was not until relatively late in her history that England was rich enough

to control the Narrow Seas. The defeat of the Spanish Armada may be taken as marking the change from a merely agricultural to a sea-faring nation.

Across the Narrow Seas, in the broad delta of the Rhine, arose the kindred nation of the Dutch. In the seclusion of their embanked islands the little Dutch communities became intensely jealous of their local freedom. When, therefore, combined defence was necessary against the Spanish oppressor, the power of the central Government was limited by ancient rights reserved to the local communities. So was founded a federal system of free government. The geographical circumstances of Holland, although favourable to the defence of her freedom, were not so favourable as were those of England, and notwithstanding the heroism of her people, Holland owed her independence, as we have seen, to the English victory over the Armada. A century later she was again indebted for her preservation to English help, given after the victory of La Hogue had averted a French invasion of Britain. In both instances England was free to venture her strength on the Continent of Europe only when she had secured command of the Narrow Seas. The same blow protected her own shores and placed her in a position to carry succour to her allies abroad.

Eastward of Holland was Prussia. Poor, in a relatively sterile plain, and without natural

defences, Prussia was made by discipline. Her strength was the human strength of the soldier, who recoils in the face of overwhelming power, and advances again on the withdrawal of that power. In the wars of Frederick the Great, the Prussian capital was more than once occupied by the enemy, and yet Prussia was not vanquished. Free institutions of the English type were impossible under such conditions, for Prussia was like a great camp, and necessarily subject to military discipline. Yet Prussia like Holland owed her preservation to the long arm of England, as well as to her own courage, and the genius of her leader. Power on the Narrow Seas and security at home rendered possible British military action in Hanover during the Seven Years' War.

The British fleet, when victorious in war, sweeps the ships of the enemy from the water, and our frontier is in effect advanced from our own coast to the coast beyond the sea. When we land troops on the Continent we are in fact crossing the British frontier. Therefore it was that when English farmers went over the Atlantic to establish a New England in America, British command of the ocean, as well as of the Narrow Seas, became essential to the unity of the empire. We lost the United States, in the first place because we infringed the idea of British liberty by seeking to tax the colonies from Westminster, but in the second place because for a time the French fleet commanded the passage of the Atlantic.

Finally, on the St. Lawrence River, new and deeper principles of government were adopted when Britain conquered and held the French colony of Canada. Up to this point we had followed the natural development of Teutonic freedom and discipline, the seeds of which were already in the German forest tribes from whom our ancestors were drawn. In the twenty years which elapsed between the conquest of Canada and the American Revolution we learned to tolerate within the empire the French tongue, the Roman law, and the Roman Catholic religion. We were rewarded with Canadian loyalty in the great crisis which ensued.

As we consider these successive episodes of history does it not come home to us that the art of government consists in the due balancing under varying conditions of freedom and order. Under her insular circumstances England could afford much freedom. But on the sea she has had to develop discipline. Holland, in her incessant contest with the waters from which her land had been won, had to limit freedom by stern local discipline. In the open plain of Prussia, discipline and organization have been the first conditions of national existence. Beyond the Atlantic, on the other hand, freedom grew like a wild weed, once the need for defence was removed by the defeat of France in the Seven Years' War. A hundred years elapsed before the increase of the American population rendered it necessary to reassert order

by strengthening the control of the Federal Government over the State Governments. That reassertion of order cost the United States a million soldiers killed in the great Civil War of the middle of last century.

In Canada the new methods of combining liberty with imperial rule were tried under fortunate circumstances. During the American Revolution Canada had her choice of masters, and she chose to be ruled rather from distant Westminster than from neighbouring Washington. Under such conditions there was no likelihood of a repetition on the part of England of the blunder of the tea duty. So was the first step taken to group under one flag and Sovereign several free communities, various in their speech, their law, and their religion, and separated by ocean spaces. In other words the modern British Empire is based on the lessons of toleration and sea-power which we learned from the American Revolution and from Canadian loyalty.

Now we return to Paris, and to a time rather more than a hundred years ago. The French, like the English, were a nation of farmers established in a fertile plain. Nor was there any very great dissimilarity of area in the two plains, for the original France was limited to the plain of the North, and had the city of Paris for its centre. As in the case of the plain of England there was no second great city in Northern France. The borders of the fertile region were

fairly well defined. Northward was the Channel, and westward, southward, and eastward were the sterile, thinly-peopled uplands of Brittany, Auvergne, and the Ardennes. The lowlands of the south-west and the south-east of Gaul were as far separated from Parisian France as were Scotland and Ireland from England. But there the likeness stops: there was a great difference in the early history of the two countries. Whereas England was conquered and united by Alfred and William, France suffered from the weak rule of her early kings. What England might have been had Wessex and Kent and Mercia and Northumbria remained separate, that did France actually become. The Dukes of Normandy, Brittany, and Burgundy, and the Counts of Flanders, Anjou, and Champagne were virtually independent of the king at Paris. Thus it happened, as already said, that when the European peoples in the thirteenth century began to set up their parliaments, there were separate parliaments for each of the French fiefs—Normandy, Brittany, Burgundy, Anjou, Champagne, Flanders—no less than for the kingly domain of Paris itself.

The same condition of affairs rendered it possible for the Norman and Plantagenet kings of England to obtain power in France. By marriage of heiresses and in other ways the English Dukes of Normandy came into possession of many of the duchies and counties of western France, so that the English rule at one time ex-



FIG. 26.—WESTERN EUROPE AT THE TIME OF LOUIS XIV.

Showing the divided condition of Germany and Italy down to the time of the outbreak of the French Revolution. Before the Thirty Years' War in the seventeenth century the United Netherlands and Switzerland were included within the Empire.

tended from the mouth of the Seine in the north to the Pyrenees in the south. The English kings still continued to talk French in their court at Westminster, and in France were almost as French as the King of France himself.

Towards the close of the Middle Ages, in what is known as the Hundred Years' War, the French king turned the English out of France, ejecting them successively from their various duchies and counties. In that war the English won great victories, such as Crecy and Poitiers and Agincourt, but in the long run they lost France, because their king had become truly English, and therefore foreign from the French point of view. French ceased to be the language of the English Court about the end of the fourteenth century. In this way it came about that France was conquered piecemeal from Paris, province being added to province. So in the end there was one king in France but there were many parliaments, and each of these parliaments, even that of Paris, was weak as against the king of all France. Therefore Parliamentary Government languished, and the king grew to be supreme and despotic. Moreover a standing army became necessary, for France had continental frontiers.

At the beginning of Modern Times the power of France, thus centralized in the hands of the king, was crippled for a time by civil wars between the Protestants and the Roman Catholics. But when internal peace was restored, the French

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king found himself by far the strongest force in Europe. His territory, which now extended from the Strait of Dover to the Mediterranean, was rich and fertile, and the French nation was populous. England and Holland owned comparatively small territories: Spain had suffered defeat in her wars with England and Holland, and was weakening: Germany and Italy were still dis-



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FIG. 27.—THE BASTILLE AND PORTE DE STE. ANTOINE IN THE YEAR 1789.

The taking of the Bastille fortress, which was to Paris what the Tower is to London, marked the beginning of the French Revolution. The mob stormed it because it was the State Prison.

united, each consisting of many small principalities. Despotism in his own country, the French King Louis XIV thought that he could dominate all Europe from Paris. Therefore it was that William III, the Dutch King of England, made an alliance of several weaker states and fought him.

In the end Louis XIV was defeated, but France still remained much the richest, the most populous

and the strongest single power in Europe. Half a century later, in the Seven Years' War she had to fight both Prussia and Britain. She had to fight, that is to say, both on land and sea, and as we put most of our efforts into the sea fight, we



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FIG. 28.—PLACE DE LA BASTILLE, PARIS.

The site of the Bastille in its present condition.

were able to defeat her in the lands beyond the sea. So we won from her Canada and India. But when the British colonies rose in rebellion, the French king took his revenge. It was the presence of a French fleet, as we have already seen,

which obliged Lord Cornwallis to make the great surrender at Yorktown.

In his turn, however, the French king had to pay for the defeat which he had inflicted on his old rival, England. The long wars had cost much money, and the taxation of France was very heavy. There was no Parliament in which the public discontent could make itself heard, for so futile had Parliamentary Government become in France that the estates of the realm had not been summoned for nearly two hundred years. Moreover Lafayette and other Frenchmen came back from the war in America and told of the success with which subjects had there risen against their king. The examples of Holland and England were much quoted by popular authors in proof of the desirability of Free Government. Finally there came two or three bad harvests, and there was great distress. Then in the year 1789 Paris rose against the King at Versailles. At first the Parisians were an unorganized mob, and had the King's troops been used decisively, the French Revolution might not have occurred. But there was hesitation on the part of the Government, and the established order was overthrown. With wild delight the people proclaimed the reign of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. They forgot that men are not angels, and that liberty may be abused by bad men, so that others suffer and in fact lose their liberty. All the existing institutions were swept away. Those

who tried to stem the popular madness were massacred. The King and Queen were executed. Then the leaders of the Revolution were themselves assassinated, and others rose to momentary power. At last the army intervened, and order was re-established, but liberty was for the time lost, since the generals ruled.

Before this result, however, was reached, the French Republic set out to give freedom to the neighbouring peoples of Europe. So there arose a European war, in which France was pitted against Austria, Prussia, and Britain. Such were the enthusiasm and the resources of the French people that at first they carried all before them. Holland was overrun, the French frontier towards Germany was advanced to the Rhine, and Spain became an ally of the Republic.

In 1795 Prussia made peace, but Austria still fought on. At this time there rose to fame a young man who became the greatest of French



FIG. 29.—THE EASTERN FRONTIER OF FRANCE IN 1792 AND 1795.

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generals. Napoleon Bonaparte led the French army from victory to victory through Northern Italy almost to the gates of Vienna. Then Austria also made peace. Napoleon returned to



FIG. 30.—BRITAIN ON THE DEFENSIVE IN THE YEARS 1797 AND 1798.

Paris, and was placed in command of an army, assembled on the shores of the Channel, which was intended for the invasion of England. Britain was now alone in the contest, and the years 1797

and 1798 were perhaps the most terrible and the most glorious in our history. There was civil war among the Irish, and help was brought to the rebels by a French invasion of Ireland. There was discontent in the fleet, and mutiny broke out in the squadrons at the Nore and at Spithead. The fleets of France, and Holland, and Spain were



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FIG. 31.—MALTA.
Looking up the Harbour.

united against us. Admiral Duncan, however, destroyed the Dutch fleet in the victory of Camperdown, off the coast of Holland, and Admiral Jarvis defeated the combined French and Spanish fleets in a great battle off Cape St. Vincent, not far from Gibraltar.

These victories made an invasion of England for the time being impracticable, but Napoleon

traversed France and sailed from Toulon with a fleet and an army intended for the conquest of Egypt, from which land it was his hope to conquer the East, and to take the Indies from Britain. On the way to Egypt he captured the island of Malta from the knights of St. John. Then he won the Battle of the Pyramids against the Moham-



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FIG. 32.—MALTA.
Looking seaward.

medan rulers of Egypt, but the British Admiral Nelson followed him, and on Aug. 1, 1798, defeated his fleet which was anchored off the mouths of the Nile. Napoleon himself succeeded in returning to France, but he had to abandon his army, which surrendered to a British force brought from India.

There was now a short peace between Britain and France, during which Napoleon established

firmly his despotic rule. This truce was made at Amiens. Then war broke out afresh, for it was evident that Napoleon was using the opportunity to make deadly preparation against this country. For the second time he assembled an army on the shore of the Channel at Boulogne, and Britain enrolled a force of volunteers for her defence. Whether such a force could have held its own against Napoleon's veterans was a point fortu-



FIG. 33.—NAPOLEON'S CAMPAIGN IN EGYPT.

nately not tested, for on the 21st of October, 1805, Nelson inflicted the great final defeat of Trafalgar on the French and Spanish fleets, and conclusively established Britain's supremacy upon the ocean.

Our leaders in the heroic contest had been Admiral Nelson, who died in the moment of victory at Trafalgar, and the statesman William Pitt the younger, "the pilot that weathered the storm," the Prime Minister who never lost courage even in

Britain's darkest hour. He died, though still young, spent with service, three months after Trafalgar, having uttered at the historic banquet of the Lord Mayor on November 9 the famous

words: "Britain has saved herself, by her example she will save Europe."

It took ten years more to save Europe, for Napoleon, now crowned Emperor of the French, though defeated at sea, was master on the continent. So ended the first effort of France for Free Government. The



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FIG. 34.—NAPOLEON'S PILLAR AT BOULOGNE.

To commemorate the "Army of England." While at Boulogne at this time Napoleon founded the French order of knighthood, the Legion of Honour.

men who made the Revolution meant well, but they lacked the long schooling of experience which had been undergone by the English and Dutch. They hurried, and the result was that France fell from absolute monarchy to the extreme licence of

liberty and was restored to order only by military despotism.



FIG. 35.—BRITAIN ON THE OFFENSIVE, AFTER TRAFALGAR.

Part II

EUROPE

By the victory of Trafalgar in 1805 Britain won the command of the ocean and isolated Europe. Within the Continent of Europe the older landmarks were swept away by Napoleon, and a new map was drawn by the ambassadors assembled at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. France leaned on the naval power of Britain, but the remainder of the Continent, and especially Prussia and Austria, relied on the military power of Russia. In the middle of the nineteenth century a great change took place. A mighty new power, Germany, rose in the centre of Europe which ultimately dwarfed the significance both of Russia and France. Let us consider the events which have changed the map of 1815 into the map of to-day.



FIG. 36.

CHAPTER VI. THE WESTERN POWERS

THE Battle of Trafalgar was the beginning of a new epoch. Britain was now supreme on the ocean. Her sea power extended round all the coasts of Europe. Wherever her ships of war floated her influence was decisive. Even the Strait of Messina sufficed to give her control over the island of Sicily, whence she derived the supplies of her Mediterranean fleet. Napoleon, on the other hand, was in equal degree powerful upon the Continent. Even before Trafalgar was fought he realized that Nelson would outmanœuvre his admirals, and he led his army away from the coast of the English Channel into the heart of Europe, there to conquer more accessible foes.

He occupied Vienna, and marching onward inflicted the great defeat of Austerlitz on the combined armies of Austria and Russia. When the news of Austerlitz reached England, William Pitt, with his dying breath, exclaimed that the map of Europe might now be rolled up for the next ten years. The old familiar divisions upon it were effaced, and the French empire extended across the Rhine and across the Alps. Prussia protested against the French aggression in the year after Austerlitz, but in her turn suffered signal defeat in the great battle of Jena. The Netherlands, the west of Germany, and all Italy were incorporated in the Napoleonic dominions. Berlin and Vienna were reduced to the rank of vassal states.

Then Napoleon turned to bring down his arch-enemy Britain. The two great Western Powers of Europe, the one seated in London, the other in Paris, were pitted against one another in a curious struggle, for neither could aim a deathblow at the



FIG. 37.—AUSTERLITZ AND JENA.

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other. French land power could not reach London, and British sea power could not reach Paris. Napoleon sought to reduce us by depriving our industry of its continental market. From Berlin he issued decrees that guard should be kept along all the coastline of Europe, and that British com-



FIG. 38.—THE EMPIRE OF NAPOLEON AT ITS WIDEST EXTENT.

merce should be shut out. But we had the rest of the world for a market, and we replied by establishing a blockade round the European coasts with the object of denying access even to neutral shipping. At this time it was that the peoples of France and Germany, deprived of West Indian

sugar, began to cultivate on a great scale the sugar beetroot.

To complete his "Continental System" Napoleon invaded Spain and Portugal, and established his brother as king there, but the Portuguese and Spanish peoples rose against him in rebellion, and



FIG. 39.—THE PENINSULAR WAR.

the British fleet took out British armies to their support. So began the Peninsular War, which lasted for six years. In no other part of Europe, except perhaps Italy, could Britain have employed her small army with effect against Napoleon. Our ancestors in speaking of their war in Spain and Portugal as the Peninsular War drew

attention to the vital secret of their success. The Spanish peninsula was encircled by British sea power except in the isthmus which is crossed by the Pyrenees. The French armies could therefore enter Spain only by one path, whereas Britain could choose her point of attack, now in this place and now in that round all the length of the coastline. It was as though a great slow-moving



FIG. 40.—TORRES VEDRAS.

giant were struggling with a quick dwarf who leaped about him and stabbed him unexpectedly. We chose for our principal landing Lisbon, the most distant point in the Peninsula, where French strength was necessarily weakest. Thence Sir John Moore marched inland. Napoleon

came against him in person with a great force, but Moore retreated northward to the coast at Corunna, thus drawing the French attack away from Portugal, and a British fleet carried off the British army from Corunna. Moore was killed in the moment of victory, when the safe embarkment of his troops had been secured.

Then Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had previously

won fame in the Maratha Wars in India, penetrated inland again from Lisbon. He in his turn was compelled to retreat by overwhelming numbers. With the foresight of genius he had prepared an impregnable position upon which he might withdraw. He had thrown up a line of entrenchments across the isthmus of the little peninsula on which Lisbon is situated. These entrenchments ran through the village of Torres Vedras, or the "Old



FIG. 41.—NAPOLEON'S RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

Towers," a name which now became for ever famous.

What the Spanish Peninsula is to Europe that is the peninsula of Lisbon to Spain. The British fleets could sail round the dominions of Napoleon from the Baltic to the Adriatic. They held a more complete control of the coasts of Spain. They had in most perfect command the peninsula of Torres Vedras, for their guns could

out-flank the enemy on land, and there was no room for the great army of France to deploy on the narrow front entrenched by Wellesley. The Spaniards and Portuguese were insurgent in rear of the French, who had to draw their supplies through the whole breadth of a hostile land. Disease and famine broke them, and they had no alternative but to retreat from before Torres Vedras.



FIG. 42.—ELBA.

That moment marked the beginning of the defeat of Napoleon. Rebellion against his tyranny flared up among the mountaineers of Tyrol, and Austria declared war on France, so that in 1809 Napoleon was compelled to withdraw a part of his force from the Peninsula. Austria was again defeated, but this time not decisively.

Behind Austria and Prussia was the power of Russia, and so long as Russia remained independent Napoleon's position was insecure. Therefore in 1812, while Wellesley, who had now become



Duke of Wellington, continued the war in Spain, Napoleon set forth on a great expedition to Moscow. Neither Austria nor Prussia dared offer him resistance. The Russians retreated before him, and his vast army of veterans entered Moscow, but within a few days the city was burnt down by its inhabitants. The winter was approaching, and Napoleon was obliged to retreat over the long snow-clad plain. He was hemmed in by the Russians, who cut off stragglers, and prevented the arrival of supplies. The French troops died by the ten thousand, frozen, and famished, and fever stricken. Then Prussia and Austria rose, and Napoleon was defeated in the great battle of Leipzig, called the "Battle of the Nations," for the Russians, the Austrians, and the Prussians were for the first time united in one supreme struggle against the French.

Napoleon retreated into France, and there he still fought on through the winter of 1813-1814. But Wellington had now crossed the Pyrenees, and had entered France from the south, and Napoleon was obliged to surrender. The allies placed upon the French throne Louis XVIII, the brother of the king who had been executed in the Revolution. Napoleon was given the island of Elba, off the Italian coast, for a little principality, and the ambassadors of the powers assembled at Vienna to unroll again the map of Europe, and to redraw its political frontiers.

Their discussions had lasted a few months when

the world was startled by the news that Napoleon had crossed from Elba to France, and was once again in Paris in command of an army. The restored King Louis had learned no lesson in his long exile. He had begun badly by striving to re-establish in France the old despotism. It is true that Napoleon was also a despot, but under him there was at least Equality and even Fraternity,



FIG. 43.—ST. HELENA.

though there was not Liberty. Moreover the army regretted the glory of his campaigns. He was welcomed back, and the King fled with hardly an effort at resistance.

The Ambassadors at Vienna were forgotten, and the

Governments of Europe re-assembled their armies. The British and the Prussians occupied the Austrian Netherlands to the north-east of France, while the Austrians and the Russians gathered on the Rhine to the east. Napoleon marched against the British and Prussians, and after two preliminary battles, in which on the whole the French had the advantage, Napoleon attacked the British under the Duke of Wellington, and suffered his final defeat at Waterloo on the 18th of June, 1815. As the long day of struggle

was closing, the Prussians under Blücher arrived on the scene, and converted defeat into rout.

Napoleon fled to Paris, and from Paris to the naval port of Rochefort on the Bay of Biscay, and there he surrendered himself to the captain of the British warship *Bellerophon*. He was taken to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic, where some years later he died.

The duel between the two great Western Powers was now at last over, and the ambassadors resumed their talk at Vienna.



FIG. 44.—THE POPULATIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE COMPARED.

CHAPTER VII. THE NEW MAP OF EUROPE

THE victors in the Titanic struggle were two, Britain and Russia, as it were the whale and the elephant, the sea power and the land power. Against Britain Napoleon had found his limit at the sea-shore. Against Russia he had lost himself in the limitless plain of the East.

Now that France had been deprived of her lead, the conquerors, British and Russian, found themselves opposed to one another. Two parties formed among the ambassadors assembled at Vienna, the British party and the Russian party. Britain had fought against Napoleon, but the British were a free people, and had little sympathy with the aims of despotic and enslaved Russia, nine-tenths of whose population were merely serfs, tied to the land. Napoleon being removed, Britain was attracted rather to France than to Russia. The French might not yet have established Free Government on a firm foundation, but it was certain that they would never again tolerate the despotism of the old kings. Their ideal was now that of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. So the two Western Powers drew together.

The governments of Prussia and Austria, on

the other hand, clung to the Russian despotic model the more desperately because the new French ideas had made way, during the French occupation, in the western parts of Germany and in northern Italy. In the east of Germany, in Prussia and Austria, the peasantry were still in a state of serfdom or had only just emerged from it. Austria and Prussia upheld the Divine Right of Kings to the obedience of their subjects under all conditions. They hated England no less than France, for England also had beheaded a king, and had established her later Constitutional Monarchy by a mere Act of Parliament. The kings of England had been chosen by their people: the peoples of the East were the property of their kings.

So there was formed the "Holy Alliance" of the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia. The Alliance had for its object the defeat of revolution wherever it might show itself in Europe. It was against this league of the Eastern Powers that the recent enemies, Britain and France, allied themselves. Curiously, the most active statesmen at the Congress belonged to neither of the leading Powers. They were neither British nor Russian. It was the Frenchman Talleyrand whose wits were pitted against the Austrian Metternich in the diplomatic struggle at Vienna between West and East.

A new map of Europe was the outcome of the compromise between the two parties thus mar-

shalled in the Congress of Vienna. France was re-established and a Constitutional Monarchy was given to her with a king and parliament, although for a time the king chafed against the limitation of his power, and sought to overthrow the Constitution. The French boundaries were restored, with exceptions of detail, to what they had been before the Revolution. France lost to Britain



FIG. 45.—HELIGOLAND.

most of her foreign possessions, but by virtue of the extent of her fertile and cultivated territory and the number and intelligence of her population, she still remained the strongest single Power in Europe. In the whole British Isles there was at this time a population of perhaps sixteen millions, of whom five millions were in Ireland. In France there was a population of more than thirty millions.

So far as Britain also was concerned the map of Europe underwent little change. Gibraltar, which had been won a hundred years earlier, was retained as a naval base at the entry to the Mediterranean, and Malta was taken from France as an inner base.

The island of Heligoland off the mouth of the Elbe in the North Sea became British, though it was never fortified, and was given back to Germany a few years ago in return for the island of Zanzibar on the African coast of the Indian Ocean.

Spain and Portugal were re-established as kingdoms with

their former boundaries, but they had lost their colonies in South America, which had made themselves independent while the French were in possession of the Motherlands in Europe. Thus the mighty realm of Spain, which once threat-



FIG. 46.—THE NETHERLANDS AND BELGIUM.
Which formed a single kingdom of the Netherlands
from 1815 to 1830.

ened all Europe, relapsed into the position of a second-rate Power.

Britain and France insisted that the mouths of the Rhine should not be in the possession of the Powers of Eastern Europe. A state was therefore set up in this part of Europe which, it was hoped, would be strong enough to act as a buffer between West and East. For Britain this was a vital matter,



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FIG. 47.—THE SCHELDT AT ANTWERP.

since the mouths of the Rhine, Meuse, and Scheldt form a series of harbours immediately opposite to the estuary of the Thames. Napoleon had fortified Antwerp, and made a dockyard there for the purpose, as he said, of holding a pistol to the heart of England. Therefore the independence of the Dutch was restored, under a king of the old House of Orange, and there was added to his territory

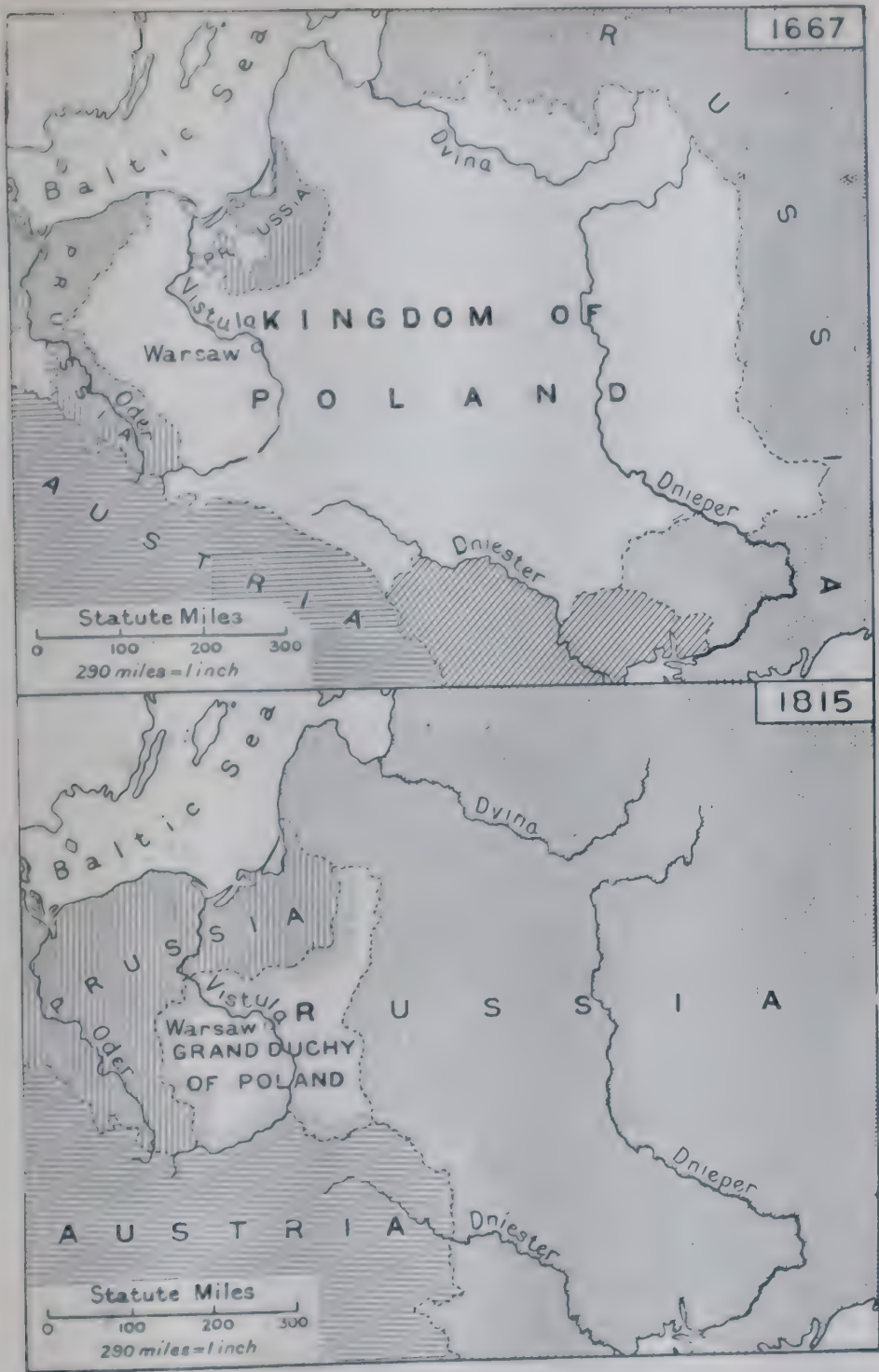


FIG. 48.—POLAND.

the Spanish Netherlands round Brussels, which of late had belonged to Austria. Thus a single Kingdom of the Netherlands was formed, which contained both Amsterdam and Brussels, both the Protestants of Holland and the Roman Catholics of Belgium.

In Eastern Europe an end was made of the Kingdom of Poland. By three successive divisions, immediately before the wars of the French Revolution and during the progress of those wars, Russia, Austria, and Prussia had taken to themselves the whole of the Polish territories. The annexations were now made definite, and the frontiers were settled. Russia obtained the lion's share, but it was stipulated that part of Russian Poland should not be annexed to the Czardom, but should be ruled from Warsaw as a separate Grand Duchy with the Czar as Grand Duke.

In the north, Finland, which had belonged to Sweden, was conveyed to the Czar as a second Grand Duchy, with Helsingfors for its capital. To Sweden, whose king was now Bernadotte, one of the marshals of the Napoleonic army, Norway was given in compensation. It had belonged to Denmark before the war, and Denmark was therefore reduced to small dimensions. Only the islands at the entry of the Baltic and the peninsula of Jutland remained to the King of Denmark, though he was also Duke of the two German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein in the isthmus uniting Jutland to the mainland.

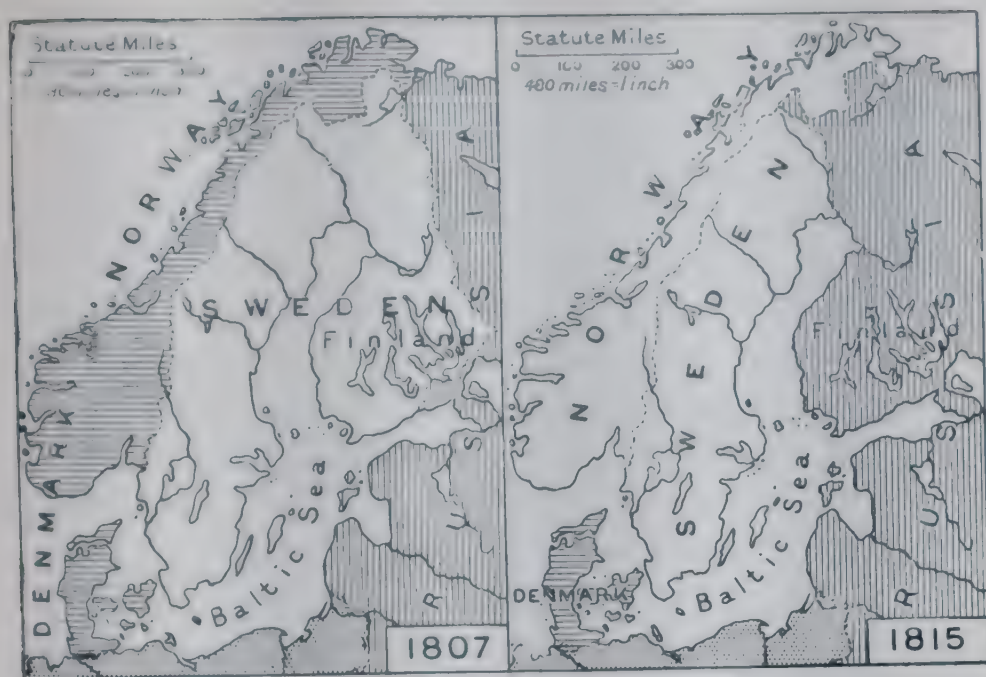


FIG. 49.—SWEDEN AND DENMARK.

Prussia and Austria were the principal gainers in the reconstruction of Europe in 1815 (see Pl. 1, p 81). Their acquisitions were chiefly at the expense of the smaller sovereigns of Germany and Italy. The Congress of Vienna restored the map of Italy to what it had been before the conquests of Napoleon, but with certain exceptions. The King of Sardinia was reinstated at Turin and recovered possession of his former territories of Piedmont, Savoy, Nice, and the island of Sardinia. There was given to him also the territory of the former Republic of Genoa, for the Holy Alliance disliked republics. At Florence the Grand Duke of Tuscany was set up again. At Rome the Pope received back his temporal

possessions extending across Italy from sea to sea, and the King of Naples was restored to the rule both of the southern mainland and of the island of Sicily. In the north, however, the Republic of Venice, after a wonderful history of commercial and naval power extending over more than a thousand years, lost its independence, and together with the Duchy of Lombardy at Milan, was given to Austria. With Venice went also the Dalmatian coastland and islands east of the Adriatic. Thus Austria descended from her German Alps, and came into the military rule of a large Italian population. On the Danube, at Budapest, she governed in similar manner the Magyars or Hungarians, and beyond the Carpathians she obtained her share of Poland, which is known as Galicia.

Prussia had consisted before the war of a continuous territory extending from Berlin north-eastward through Pomerania into the old duchy of Prussia, and south-eastward into Silesia. The nucleus of the kingdom, it will be remembered, was the German Electorate of Brandenburg round Berlin. In the seventeenth century the Elector of Brandenburg, of the Hohenzollern family, inherited the Duchy of Prussia round Königsberg, and made himself King of Prussia. Then Prussia conquered from Austria the Duchy of Silesia round Breslau. Finally, Prussia proper was joined to Brandenburg by the annexation of Pomerania round Stettin and of parts of Poland round Dantzic and Posen. So the king-

dom of Prussia stood when the Napoleonic deluge subsided.

At Vienna in 1815 Prussia received that part of the Electorate of Saxony which lies round Magdeburg on the Elbe, but most of the remainder of Saxony was raised to the rank of a kingdom with its capital at Dresden. Prussia also received—and this is of great importance—a large district in the west of Germany on the Rhine. This district became the Westphalian and Rhine Provinces. It was completely separated by the kingdom of Hanover from the eastern mass of the Prussian territory. Before the war most of the Rhineland and Westphalia had belonged to archbishops and bishops, who ruled as temporal princes, just as the Pope of Rome has until lately ruled a territory in Central Italy. The chief of the ecclesiastical sovereigns of western Germany were the Archbishops of Köln or Cologne, of Trier or Treves, and of Mainz or Mayence. All three of them had the rank of Electors in the old Empire. By the annexation of their territories the whole character of Prussia was changed. She became a Western as well as an Eastern power in Europe, for German life in the Rhineland had been westernised by the French occupation.

With regard to the remainder of Germany, it must be remembered that after the Reformation Austria attempted, in what is known as the Thirty Years' War, to conquer her many small neighbours, and to build up a single great German

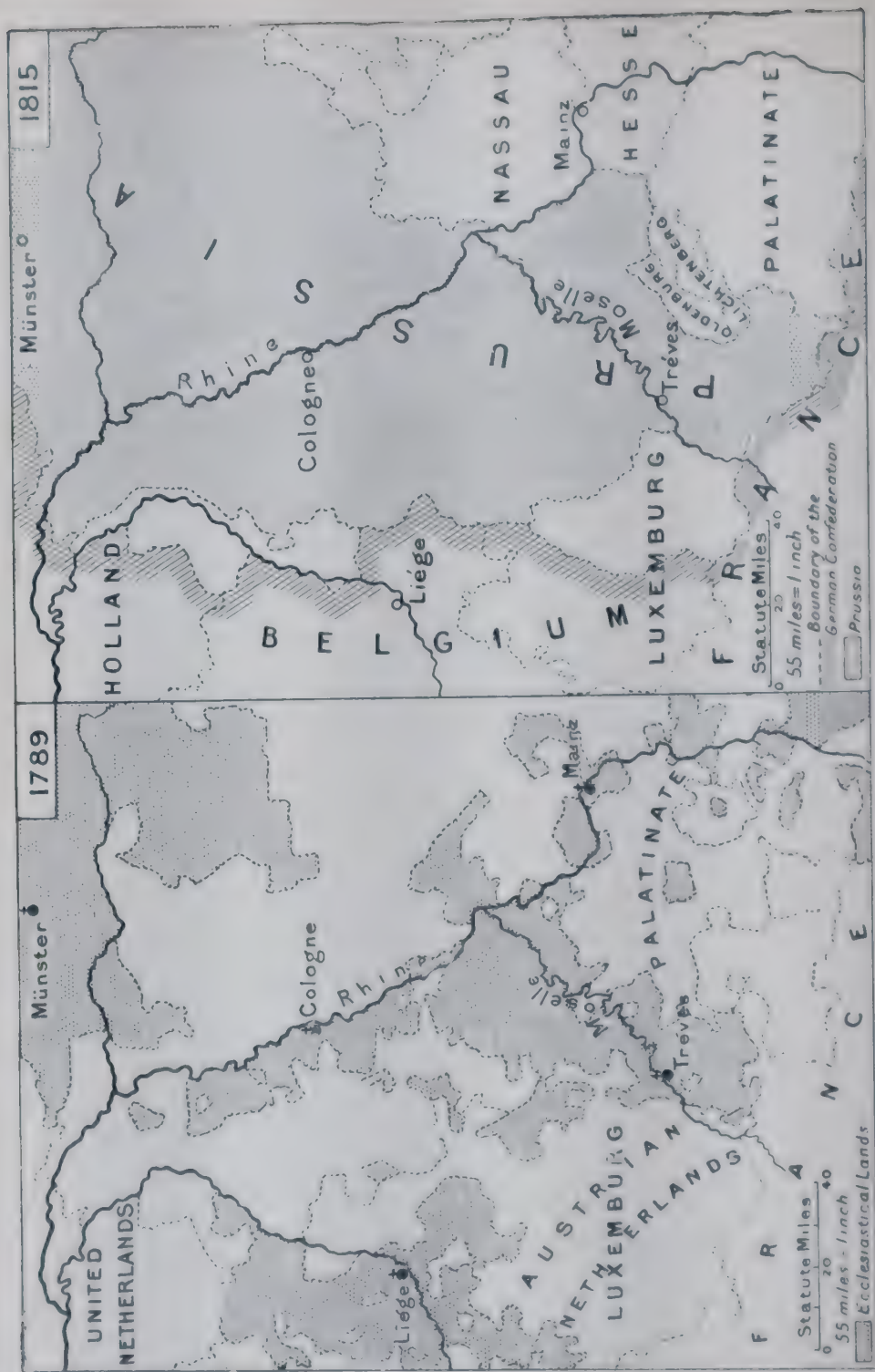


FIG. 50.—THE RHINE PROVINCES.

realm comparable to the Kingdom of France. She failed, and the map of Germany as settled after the Thirty Years' War, at the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, was like an old-fashioned bed quilt, a thing of many little patches, variously coloured, indicating the rule of many little despots—dukes, counts, princes, and bishops, and here and there a free republican city. At the Congress of Vienna in 1815 these hundreds of little states were reduced in number to between twenty and thirty. The Princely Archbishopric of Salzburg was annexed to Austria. The Electorate of Hanover was raised to a kingdom and was retained by the King of England. The Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, as we have already learned, remained with the King of Denmark. The old Electorate of Bavaria was increased by the annexation of smaller states, and was formed into the Kingdom of Bavaria, with its capital at Munich. The Duchy of Würtemberg became the Kingdom of Würtemberg, with its capital at Stuttgart. A few other principalities were left, scattered through central and western Germany, and the four cities of Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, and Frankfort-on-Main retained their separate free government.

The rest of the royal families of Germany, those who lost their sovereignties, were mediatized, as the phrase was. They were reduced from the rank of Royal Highness to that of Serene Highness and became merely a high nobility. So conservative,

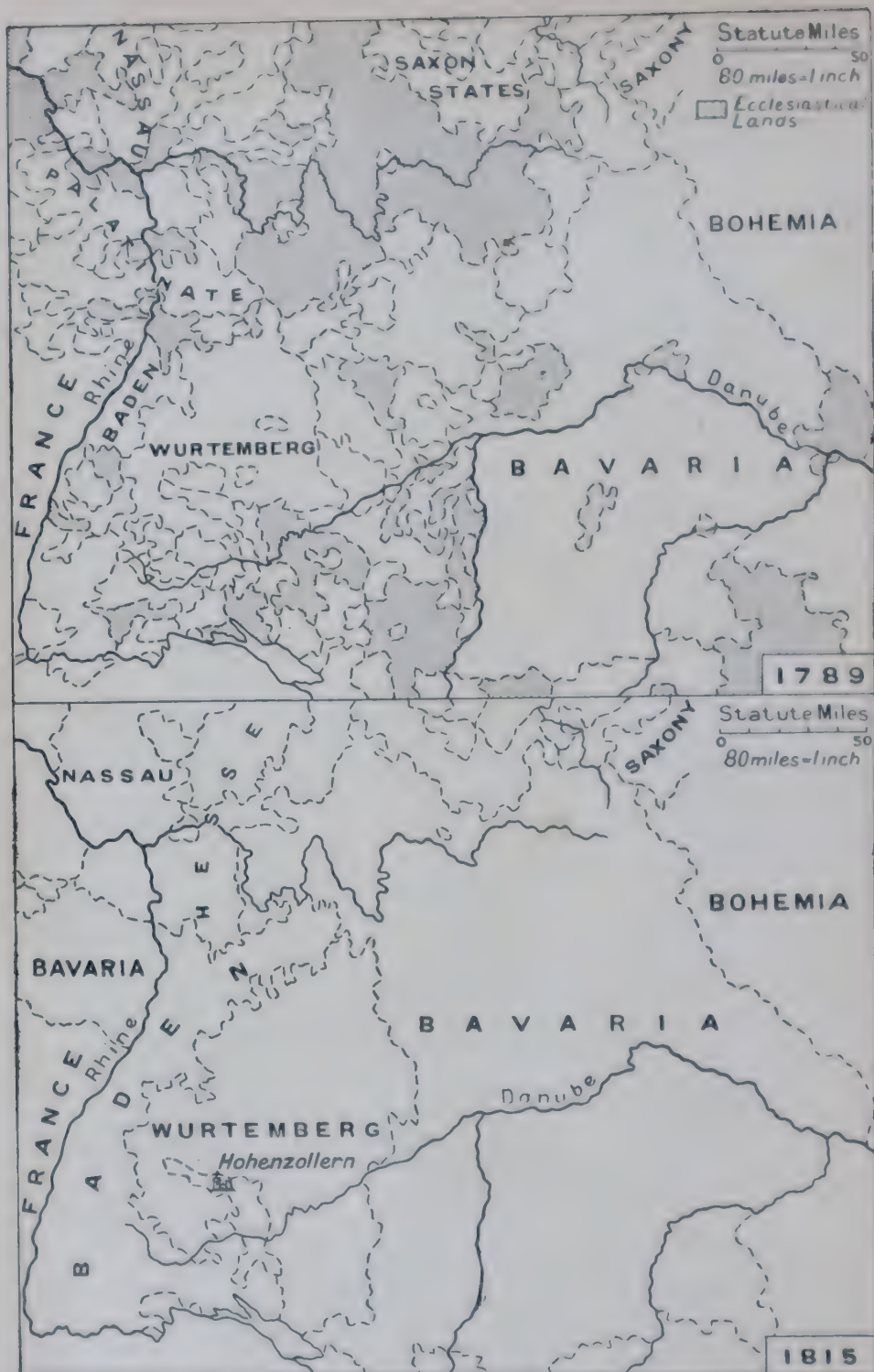


FIG. 51.—THE SOUTH GERMAN STATES.

Note the position of the Castle of Hohenzollern, whence came the royal line of Prussia.



II — THE BLUE BOUNDARY IS THAT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE
THE LANDS OF THE HUN-ARIAN CROWN ARE SHOWN IN PURPLE

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III.—THE TURKISH EMPIRE—pink.
INDEPENDENT STATES—blue.

however, were the ambassadors of Europe at Vienna, so much did they dread innovation after their terrible experience at the hands of the French Revolution and Napoleon, that they hesitated to abolish the phantom unity of Germany. That state was left on the map of Europe as a League, with an assembly of ambassadors meeting at Regensburg or Ratisbon on the Danube. The two chief members of this Bund or Federation were Austria and Prussia, but the Polish, Hungarian, and Italian dominions of Austria were excluded from Germany, as were the north-eastern provinces of Prussia, that is to say Prussia proper and Posen. The other members of the German Bund were the three Kings of Saxony, Bavaria, and Würtemberg, also the King of England in his capacity of King of Hanover, the King of Denmark in his capacity of Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, the twenty minor princes of Germany who still retained their territories, and the four Free Cities. Such a league was futile for all purposes of real government, and thus it happened that on the map settled at Vienna, Germany still remained merely a "geographical expression." The same description applied also to Italy on that map.

For the rest, Switzerland was reorganised as a Federal Republic of Cantons, most of them speaking German, but two or three speaking French, and one Italian. In the south-east of Europe, beyond the region which had been affected by Napoleon, and therefore beyond the powers of the

Ambassadors at Vienna, the Turks continued to rule from Constantinople over a wide and mainly Christian empire of various speech. The Turkish boundaries marched with those of Russia and Austria. Only at one point, on the highland overlooking the Austrian coastland of Dalmatia, did a small branch of the Servian race maintain its independence under the Prince of Montenegro. Elsewhere in the Balkan Peninsula the Turks held sway, from Cape Matapan to the Rivers Save and Pruth.

CHAPTER VIII. THE EASTERN POWERS

AFTER the Congress of Vienna there was peace in Europe for more than thirty years. There were minor quarrels, of course, but no great struggle which fundamentally altered the map. In part the reason lay in the exhaustion of the nations after the long preceding wars, but in part it was due to the repressive action of the Eastern Powers. Russia, Austria, and Prussia joined in the Holy Alliance, and held in place the many little despotic princes who ruled the states of Italy and western Germany.

Midway, however, through the long truce, in the years about 1830, there was a considerable stir in Europe, although no war between first-rate powers. The movement began in the far south-east, where the Eastern Question became acute. The Eastern Question concerns the future of the Balkan region, where Christian peoples have been conquered by the Mohammedan Turks, and the Turkish power has waned. Of the four Christian nations which were subject to the Turks—the Greeks, the Servians, the Bulgarians, and the Roumanians—the first and the last were involved in the events of which we are now to speak. The Greeks rose against their oppressors, and fought with them for several years, until the

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Mohammedan Viceroy of Egypt, known as the Khedive, came to the help of his master, the Sultan, with an Egyptian navy and army. Three of the Great Powers now intervened in the quarrel, although from very different motives. The Western Powers, Britain and France, were interested in the freedom of the Greeks. There was enthusiasm in the west for the modern Greeks because of the deep debt which we owe to the ancient Greeks. The poet Byron who died in the Greek cause at this time was typical of this enthusiasm. Russia, on the other hand, acted with the object of weakening the power of the Turks, who at Constantinople barred her access to the Mediterranean. The Khedive's fleet was destroyed in 1827 in the Bay of Navarino by a British and French fleet. The Russian army marched across the Danube and the Balkans to Adrianople. At the peace which followed, the Greek peninsula and some of the neighbouring islands were formed into an independent Greek kingdom. North of the Danube the Roumanian provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia were given self rule under their princes, although they remained tributary to the Turkish Sultan.

In the west also there were certain changes at this time. The Roman Catholics of the Southern Netherlands rose against the Dutch King, and that part of the Netherlands was separated from the remainder, and was formed into a new Kingdom of Belgium, with its capital at Brussels. The Kingdom of the House of Orange was thus limited to

the northern, the mainly Protestant part of the Netherlands, whose capital is at the Hague, although Amsterdam is the largest city. As regards the Netherlands therefore the work of the Congress of Vienna was soon undone. In their anxiety to erect a reasonably strong state at the mouth of the Rhine, the ambassadors had underestimated the deep opposition between North and South in the Low Countries, an opposition due originally to the Reformation and the War of Independence against Spain.

The little Duchy of Luxemburg which lay within the bounds of Germany, although the Duke was the Orange King of the Netherlands, was divided between the two states. Half of it was assigned to Belgium and excluded from Germany. The other half, including the fortress of Luxemburg itself, remained under the rule of the King of Holland, though it was still considered a part of the German Federation. This small point is worth noting, for we shall hear again of the Duchy of Luxemburg.

There were changes at this time both in France and Britain, although in neither case was there involved an alteration of the map. In France the Royal Family which had been restored in 1815 was expelled in 1830, for the kings of this family tried to rule in the old despotic manner and not according to the new Constitution. A distant cousin of the deposed King was called to the throne, Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans. He

agreed to rule with a ministry responsible to Parliament after the British model. In Britain the First Reform Bill was carried at this time, the effect of which was to increase the number of citizens who elected the House of Commons.

Again Europe was calm, and the calm lasted for another half generation. Except in the west, however, the stillness was like that which precedes the storm. It was due to repression rather than to contentment. Many there were, however, especially in the west, who mistook the signs of the times, and thought that war had ceased for ever. They were rudely awakened when in 1848 a revolution occurred in France. From Paris rebellion spread through Europe like a fire on the prairie. The fresh change in France cost little blood, and was accomplished in three days. King Louis Philippe fled to England, and for the second time the Republic was proclaimed at Paris. In Germany and Italy, however, the commotion lasted for two years. In almost every little capital of those lands there was rebellion and revolution, and also in Berlin and Vienna.

The key to the situation was in Vienna. There the minister Metternich, who had held power since the year 1809, had to fly. The Emperor abdicated, and was succeeded by the youthful Francis Joseph who still reigns. The Italians of Milan and Venice, the Hungarians of Budapest, the Czechs of Prague, and the Poles of Cracow rebelled

against the Austrian authority. But the Austrian army, which remained loyal to the new Emperor, slowly recovered control in the Italian provinces. The King of Sardinia came to the aid of the revolting Milanese and Venetians, but was defeated in the battle of Novara. The Hungarian insurrection, however, made great headway, and burdened as the Austrian Government was with difficulties in every other direction, it might have failed to recover its position at Budapest, had not the Russians intervened in the year 1849. The result was that first the Hungarians, and then the other peoples were subdued and replaced under the Austrian rule.

In Berlin the King of Prussia managed to hold his own by making concessions to the popular demand, and in the year 1850 the Germans outside Austria desired him to assume the title of German Emperor. A congress was held at Olmütz in Moravia, and there the Russians and Austrians forbade the King of Prussia to accept the imperial crown. The General commanding the Prussian army was obliged to inform his master that his forces were not in a condition to resist the two empires, and Prussia had to give way ignominiously. Notwithstanding all the enthusiasm and sacrifice which had been expended, Germany remained for the time a group of virtually independent states, and therefore impotent among the Powers of Europe.

Thus the movement for freedom in Central

Europe failed. The ideas which caused that movement came from the west, from England and France. They had been fermenting in the better minds of Germany and Italy for many years, but the leaders of 1848, like the leaders of the French Revolution in 1789, lacked practical experience. They did not realize that freedom is only to be won and maintained by organized power. They were not prepared to meet with adequate force the despotism of the Eastern Powers, and therefore once more suffered repression. The map of Germany and Italy was not changed from the form which had been given to it at the Congress of Vienna. The power which reinstated Austria in Hungary, and at Olmütz silently defeated Prussia, was the sword of Russia.

Such was the immediate effect of the struggle of 1848. The sequel was dramatic and unexpected. In France freedom once more degenerated into license, with the result that another Napoleon, a nephew of the first, set up a military dictatorship. In 1852 he was crowned Emperor under the title of Napoleon III. A son, who never reigned, of the first Napoleon was counted as Napoleon II.

Napoleon III desired military distinction, for if he were to hold his own he must live up to the dazzling splendour of the first French Empire. At this time it so happened that there was a fresh stirring of the Christian subjects of the Turk, and therefore a fresh opportunity for Russian ambition.

In 1853 the Russians passed through the Roumanian principalities to the Danube, and there attacked the Turks, who defended themselves with great courage. But Austria was jealous of this move



FIG. 52.—THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1853.

on the part of Russia, for she saw that if Russia succeeded in displacing the Turk from Constantinople, there was nothing to prevent the extension of Russian territory westward to the Adriatic, since most of the people in the Balkan Peninsula were

of Slavonic race, like the Russians, and of the Greek form of Christianity. There would then be no question of equality as between the power of Russia and of Austria, for Austria would be in the grip of her great neighbour from Poland round to the Adriatic. Austria therefore massed an army on her Transylvanian frontier, and threatened



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FIG. 53.—SEVASTOPOL.

the communications of the Russian army on the Danube. Then France and Britain made common cause to check the Russian advance to the Mediterranean. Under the circumstances there was no alternative for the Czar but to order the retreat of his troops from the Danube. But Russia did not forgive Austria for her threat.



FIG 54.—THE CRIMEA.

The British and French troops now landed in the Crimea, and in 1854 besieged the fortress of Sevastopol. Russian reinforcements were hurried up, and as the winter came on the besiegers found themselves besieged. The road from the north lay open into Sevastopol, and there was no possibility of reducing the fortress by starvation. The sufferings especially of the British troops were great, for there was much mismanagement in the matter of supplies. Thus the position continued through a whole year, the two armies facing one

another across entrenchments and ramparts. The Russians received their supplies overland from the north, and the Allies theirs over the seas from the south. Finally Sevastopol was taken by storm, and peace was made at Paris in 1856, Russia undertaking to maintain no fleet for the future in the Black Sea. Napoleon III had won the glory he sought, and Britain had humbled her Eastern rival for a term of years. So we secured our passage through the Mediterranean to Egypt, where already it was probable that a canal would be cut through the Isthmus of Suez to the Indian Ocean.

The crucial fact which changed the whole aspect of European affairs at this time was the quarrel between Russia and Austria. Prussia had already been humbled and offended at Olmütz. The Holy League was thus brought to an end. The Eastern Powers could no longer act together for the repression of freedom in Europe.

CHAPTER IX. THE NEW POWERS OF THE CENTRE

THE change which had been made in Europe by the Congress of Olmütz in 1850 and by the Crimean War in 1854 soon made itself evident. Hitherto the central lands, Germany and Italy, had been the field of conflict between the Western and the Eastern powers. Now the Holy Alliance had been shattered, and the central lands released, though as yet the mass of men did not know it.

The first events which revealed the new situation took place in Italy. There the King of Sardinia, ruling at Turin, had for his Prime Minister one of the greatest men of the century, Count Cavour. Under Cavour's guidance Sardinia had intervened in the Crimea. For the sake of winning a seat for his little country in the councils of Europe Cavour sent a force of Italians to join the British and French before Sevastopol. Accordingly he was admitted to the Congress of Paris, where the Treaty of Peace was arranged in 1856. There he made the acquaintance of Napoleon III. Three years later France in alliance with Sardinia declared war on Austria and marched upon Milan. In the battle of Solferino the French defeated the Austrians, and peace was made at Villafranca. Lombardy was taken from Austria and annexed to Sardinia, but Napoleon exacted in payment

the cession of Savoy and Nice, which were Sardinian territories, and these were added to France. Austria was left to her fate by her former allies, Russia and Prussia.

Napoleon was not anxious to set up a great power in Italy as an eastern neighbour to France, but he lost control of events, for the annexation of Savoy and Nice cost him his popularity in Italy. A plebiscite was held in the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, in the Duchies of Parma and Modena, and in that part of the papal dominions which was known as the Romagna. By overwhelming majorities the peoples of these little states voted for annexation to Sardinia. So a Kingdom of Italy sprang suddenly into existence, with its capital at Turin. Then an adventurer, Garibaldi, gathered a force about him in Sicily, and crossing the Strait of Messina overthrew the King of Naples, with the result that the south of Italy and Sicily were added to the national kingdom. A French force in Rome retained for the Pope the territory immediately around the Eternal City, and the Austrians still held Venice. Nevertheless a real Kingdom of Italy had been constituted, whose capital was soon removed from Turin to the more central position of Florence. These things happened in the years 1859 and 1860.

Just at this juncture the King of Prussia died, and a new king William I ruled at Berlin. He chose for his chief Minister Bismarck, a Prussian country gentleman who had learned the secrets

of European politics as a diplomat at Paris and St. Petersburg. Bismarck took for his colleagues Von Roon, whom he made Minister of War, and Moltke, to whom he gave the command of the army. These four men—King William, Bismarck, Von Roon, and Moltke—now set themselves the task of rendering impossible a repetition of the blow inflicted on Prussia at Olmütz. It was decided to double the Prussian forces, notwithstanding the fact that the Prussian Parliament refused to vote the supplies. The taxes were levied without the consent of Parliament, for in Prussia the Ministers are responsible to the King, and not as in Britain to Parliament. In this far-sighted and thorough preparation the Prussian Government was true to its past, however illegal its methods in our eyes. It was by such preparation of the army in the days before Frederick the Great that that monarch was able to achieve what he did.

In 1863 the King of Denmark died, and there was a dispute as to the succession to his Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. In the end the German Diet commissioned Prussia and Austria to occupy the two Duchies with their joint forces on behalf of the German Federation. Austria had no desire for such action, but she could not afford to allow to Prussia the sole lead in Germany on such a question. Poor little Denmark was of course defeated, and then as might have been expected, and as was probably intended by Bismarck, the victors quarrelled. Most of the minor states in

Germany, and especially the kingdoms of Saxony, Bavaria, Württemberg, and Hanover, sided with Austria, for they dreaded the growing strength of Prussia. It was fortunate for Britain that the Salic Law held good in Hanover, in accordance with which a woman could not ascend the throne and reign as queen. Therefore when Queen Victoria in 1837 became Queen of England, her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, came to the Kingdom of Hanover. So it happened that we were not directly concerned in the German dispute, as we had been in the days of Frederick the Great.

Prussia now attacked Austria. Her troops were equipped with the newest weapon, the breech-loading rifle, while the Austrians had still the old muzzle-loader. The war was decided in a single great battle fought at Sadowa in Bohemia, and within seven weeks of the commencement of operations the Prussians were in sight of Vienna. Peace was made and Prussia had her own way, for Russia refused to intervene on behalf of her friend of former days. Nor was the French Emperor ready for the suddenness of the Prussian attack on Austria and the quick conduct of the war. Had the struggle been prolonged, France might perhaps have intervened, for she had no desire to see on her eastern frontier a powerful and united Germany in addition to a united Italy. Therefore Bismarck made haste to agree with his enemy. He exacted no territory from Austria, but merely excluded her from the German Federation.



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IV.—THE TURKISH EMPIRE—pink.
INDEPENDENT STATES—blue.



Among the minor states, however, which had opposed him Bismarck worked his will, for they were now defenceless. The Kingdom of Hanover was annexed to Prussia as a new province. A very important annexation it was, for it made the Prussian territories continuous, which had hitherto



FIG. 55.—THE BATTLE OF SADOWA.

been divided into separate eastern and western sections. Another Prussian province, called Nassau, was constituted from annexations in the centre of Germany, including the free city of Frankfort-on-Main. Yet a third new province was formed from Schleswig and Holstein. The significance of

this last annexation was foreseen by Bismarck. If a canal for shipping were to be constructed from the Baltic to the North Sea it must be through Holstein.

Thus Prussia came to be dominant in Germany, and Austria was excluded from the German Bund. Treaties of close alliance were made between Prussia on the one hand and the Kingdoms of Saxony, Bavaria, and Würtemberg on the other.

These great events were, however, not all that happened in that summer of 1866, the summer of the Seven Weeks' War. Italy joined in the attack upon Austria, and though her troops were defeated in battle, yet Bismarck saw to it that at the Peace she received her reward in the shape of the territory and city of Venice. Only the Dalmatian coast, and the southern part of Tyrol about Trent, now remain to Austria of the Italian lands which were assigned to her at the Congress of Vienna. The Hungarians also seized their chance while the war was in progress and threw off the Austrian yoke. Hungary alone could not, however, hope to contend with the power of neighbouring Russia. Therefore a link was retained with Austria. A new dual monarchy was constituted with a single monarch. At Vienna Francis Joseph continued to be Austrian Emperor, but at Budapest he became King of Hungary. There were to be a common army and a common foreign policy, but in other respects Austria and Hungary became separate states.

Rarely have such vast changes occurred as the result of so short a struggle. In reality

however, the new map did but register events which had been preparing ever since the Congress of Olmütz and the war in the Crimea.

The French Emperor was now in a very difficult position. His temporary glory in the Crimea and in Italy was dimmed by the rise of the two new states on his eastern border, limiting French ambition in that direction. The Government in Paris became very irritable, and its relations with Berlin were strained. At one moment it appeared that there would be war in regard to the little Duchy of Luxemburg, placed on the frontier between the two states. This quarrel however was settled by the dismantling of the fortress of Luxemburg.

Then in 1870 there came another quarrel. The throne of Spain was vacant, and among the candidates was a distant cousin of the King of Prussia. France refused to tolerate a Prussian king in Madrid, fearing to be caught between two fires. King William withdrew the candidature of the Hohenzollern prince, but Napoleon desired a promise that it should never be renewed. Bismarck saw that sooner or later war was inevitable. The French could not rest in the new Europe which had been created by the rise of Prussia. Never since the Reformation had French power at Paris been balanced on the Continent by any nearer power than that of Vienna, and France had been in the habit of dictating policy to the little German states on the Rhine. On the other hand Bismarck knew that his King and master was reluctant to make

war. Therefore he altered a telegram despatched to him from King William in the course of the negotiations, with the result that the King appeared to have slighted the French Ambassador. On the publication of this telegram Napoleon declared war. Nothing was known of that stroke of Bismarck's pencil until many years afterwards.

The history of the great war of 1870 and 1871 was recounted in a chapter of the second book of this series. The South Germans of Saxony, Bavaria, and Württemberg, being attacked by their old enemy, France, stood true to their alliance with Prussia, though they did not love the Prussians and had been at war with them only four years beforehand. It was thus a German and not merely a Prussian army which invaded France. Napoleon was left to fight out the struggle alone. He had given no help to Austria in her extremity after Sadowa, and Austria owed no debt to him.

The Germans defeated the French in a series of great battles round Metz, and laid siege to that fortress, but without waiting to take it their splendidly prepared army advanced further into France, leaving a sufficient force behind to blockade the French army in Metz. A second French army was defeated in the great battle of Sedan, and was taken prisoner with the Emperor Napoleon at its head. Napoleon was deposed, and the third Republic was proclaimed in Paris.

Then the Germans laid siege to Paris for many weeks, until famine compelled its surrender.

While the siege was still in progress, the Princes of Germany, assembled in the old palace of the French kings at Versailles, invited the King of Prussia to become German Emperor.

The disgrace of Olmütz was avenged. The Kings of Saxony, Bavaria, and Württemberg, and the various Grand Dukes and Dukes continued to rule in their own dominions for local purposes, but a Parliament was elected to represent the whole empire at Berlin.

A Supreme Court of Law was also established for the empire with its seat at Leipzig. The German army was reorganized as a single army, with the Emperor as its commander in war.

The defeated French had to pay to Germany an indemnity of two hundred millions sterling, a portion of their territory being occupied until the last of the money had been handed over. In addition they had to yield Alsace and half Lorraine, with the fortresses of Strasburg and Metz. This ceded territory was constituted an imperial charge, belonging not to Prussia but to the German Empire.

As had occurred in 1866, so in 1870 and 1871 the opportunity was taken, while the Germans and French were at death grips, to settle other matters

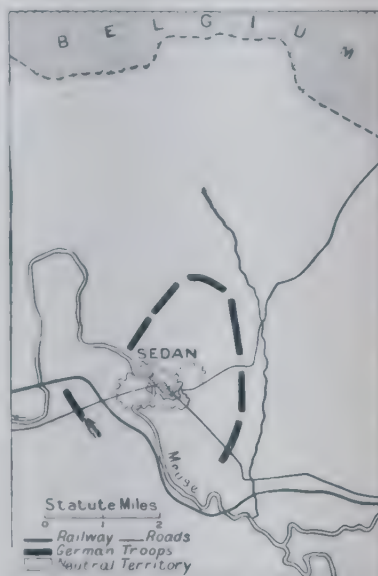


FIG. 56.—THE BATTLE OF SEDAN.

Showing the final position of the Germans round the fortress.

in Europe. The French garrison was withdrawn from Rome, and the Italian Kingdom was com-

pleted by the occupation of what remained of the papal territory, and the removal of the capital from Florence to Rome. Only St. Peter's Cathedral, and the Vatican Palace with



FIG. 57.—ROME, SHOWING ST. PETER'S AND THE VATICAN, AND ALSO THE QUIRINAL OR ROYAL PALACE.

its gardens, were left in full sovereignty to the Pope. From that day to this, by way of protest against the deprivation of temporal power, no Pope has come outside the Vatican walls.

The removal for the time being of French power had its effect also in the East. Russia tore up the Treaty of Paris in so far as it forbade her to maintain a war fleet in the Black Sea, and Britain acquiesced. A few years later there occurred a fresh rising of the Christians of Turkey. Once more the Russians passed through Roumania and crossed the Danube. As had happened at the beginning of the Crimean War, so now, the Turks made a vigorous defence, and it was only by



FIG. 58.—THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877.

The first Treaty of Peace was made at San Stefano. This Treaty was revised by the Congress of Berlin.

a supreme effort, and with the assistance of the Roumanians, that the Russians took the fortress of Plevna. Then the Turkish defence collapsed, and the Russians marched to within sight of Constantinople. But as in 1854, so now, the British Government intervened to call a halt. The British fleet passed through the Dardanelles and anchored close to Constantinople. Russia, at the end of an exhausting campaign, was in no condition

to undertake a war with Britain, and it was arranged that a Congress should assemble at Berlin to revise the terms of peace between Russia and Turkey. A change indeed had been effected in Europe when Berlin, the capital of united Germany, was chosen for the conference of the Powers, and no longer Paris !

By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 the Roumanian Principalities obtained their independence, and were constituted a kingdom with its capital at Bucharest. The principality of Servia was also made an independent kingdom with its capital at Belgrade. The little principality of Montenegro, though it remained a principality, was enlarged. Thessaly was handed over to the kingdom of Greece. South of the Danube a new principality of Bulgaria was constituted, with its capital at Sofia, but Bulgaria still remained tributary to Constantinople, and in that differed from Roumania, Servia, Montenegro, and Greece. Britain obtained possession of the island of Cyprus.

For the rest, Russia took a strip of territory from Roumania as far as the mouths of the Danube, and a province on the other side of the Danube, known as the Dobruja, was given to Roumania in compensation. The provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the far north-west of the Turkish dominions, lying between Servia and Montenegro, and like them inhabited by people of Servian speech, were assigned to the occupancy of Austria-Hungary. So Russian ambition suffered a defeat, and Austria repaid the Russian inactivity of 1859 and 1866.

Once again the long rivalry between Britain and Russia had ended in a drawn battle. Russia had advanced a little towards the Mediterranean, and had apparently further weakened the Turk, but she had been baulked by British sea power of her main object, the control of Constantinople.

The map of Europe as arranged at the Congress of Berlin now replaced that settled in 1815 at Vienna. It was a much simpler map. There had been substituted a German Empire and an Austro-Hungarian Monarchy for the complexity of the German Bund. For the complexity of the map of Italy there had been substituted a single Kingdom of Italy. In the south-east of Europe, however, the change was in the opposite direction. For the simplicity of the broad Turkish sovereignty there was substituted a group of new kingdoms, and a fresh tributary state under Turkish suzerainty.

From this time forth there have been six great Powers in Europe—Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russia, whereas in the earlier part of last century there were only five—Britain, France, Prussia, Austria, and Russia. Outside the Balkan Peninsula no change of boundary has occurred since 1878 except that the tiny island of Heligoland has been given by Britain to Germany in exchange for Zanzibar. Norway, however, has separated from Sweden and has been constituted a third Scandinavian kingdom. Bulgaria and Montenegro have lately been

raised to the rank of Kingdoms, and Portugal has become a Republic.

As we cast our eyes back over this and the three preceding chapters, we discern in the midst of all the detail a few grand changes which have taken place in Europe. A century ago France threatened to dominate the whole Continent, and Britain was engaged in a mortal conflict with her to prevent such a union of states as must inevitably bring a loss of independence to the small island of Britain. Then for half a century Russia became relatively supreme on the continent by her alliance with Austria and Prussia. Britain in this period did not interfere seriously in European politics, except three times in the south-east, when Russia threatened Constantinople. The first of these interventions was marked by the Battle of Navarino in 1827, the second by the war in the Crimea in 1854, and the third by the presence of our Mediterranean Fleet at Constantinople in 1878. Finally, we have seen that new powers rose in the centre of Europe, in Italy and in Germany, and the relative importance both of the Western Powers and of the Eastern Powers was in consequence diminished. A system of six great States with more or less balanced power was established, and these six powers have at times acted together, in what is known as the Concert of Europe, to prevent the minor states from jeopardizing the peace of Europe. There has happily been no great war in Europe since 1878.

Part III

THE OCEAN

AFTER Trafalgar Britain was practically free from competition upon the water for nearly a hundred years. Beyond the ocean she traded and colonized and fought as she chose, with hardly a challenge from Europe, which was busy with its own isolated history. In this interval of a century Britain put together undesignedly and without scheme what may be described as the materials for an empire, rather than an empire. Let us consider the chief phases and geographical results of this process, which had no unity other than the underlying fact that it was rendered possible by the command of the ocean won at Trafalgar.



FIG. 59.—THE WORLD AFTER TRAFALGAR.

CHAPTER X. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

THE Battle of Trafalgar split the stream of history into two channels. Prior to 1805 European and Colonial history had been closely connected. We won Canada from France by helping Frederick the Great of Prussia to fight her in Europe. Some years later France helped to deprive us of the United States by diverting a part of our strength to the siege of Gibraltar. At Trafalgar, however, Britain obtained such unchallenged control of the ocean that for more than two generations European history, as it has been narrated in outline in the last four chapters, was isolated from the history of the distant parts of the world. In the first half of the nineteenth century Britain had no effective competitor on the ocean,

or in the lands beyond it, except the kindred people of the United States, at that time of no great strength. The Continental Powers did not count outside Europe. Portugal, Spain, France, and Holland had been stripped of most of their colonies and of their fleets. Italy and Germany were internally divided and powerless. Austria and Prussia had small sea frontage and no overseas dominions. Russia was the only European Power able, by virtue of her Asiatic position, to threaten Britain in a certain remote degree through her Indian possessions.

Britain occupies a unique position among the lands of the world. In the vast continent of the Old World she is to Europe what Europe is to Africa and Asia. Europe, detached by the belt of deserts, occupies the north-western shoulder of the Old World, and Britain, detached by the Narrow Seas, occupies a corresponding position in Europe. Behind its desert screen Europe has been a fortress within which the white men's civilization has developed, protected from the black men and the yellow men. Britain may be compared to a moated citadel within that fortress. She is of Europe and yet not in Europe. The inhabitants of these islands owe to the Continent of Europe their language, their laws, their science, and their religion, and yet for a thousand years we have not been conquered from the mainland.

The mere fact, however, that we live in these islands, does not suffice to give us protection.

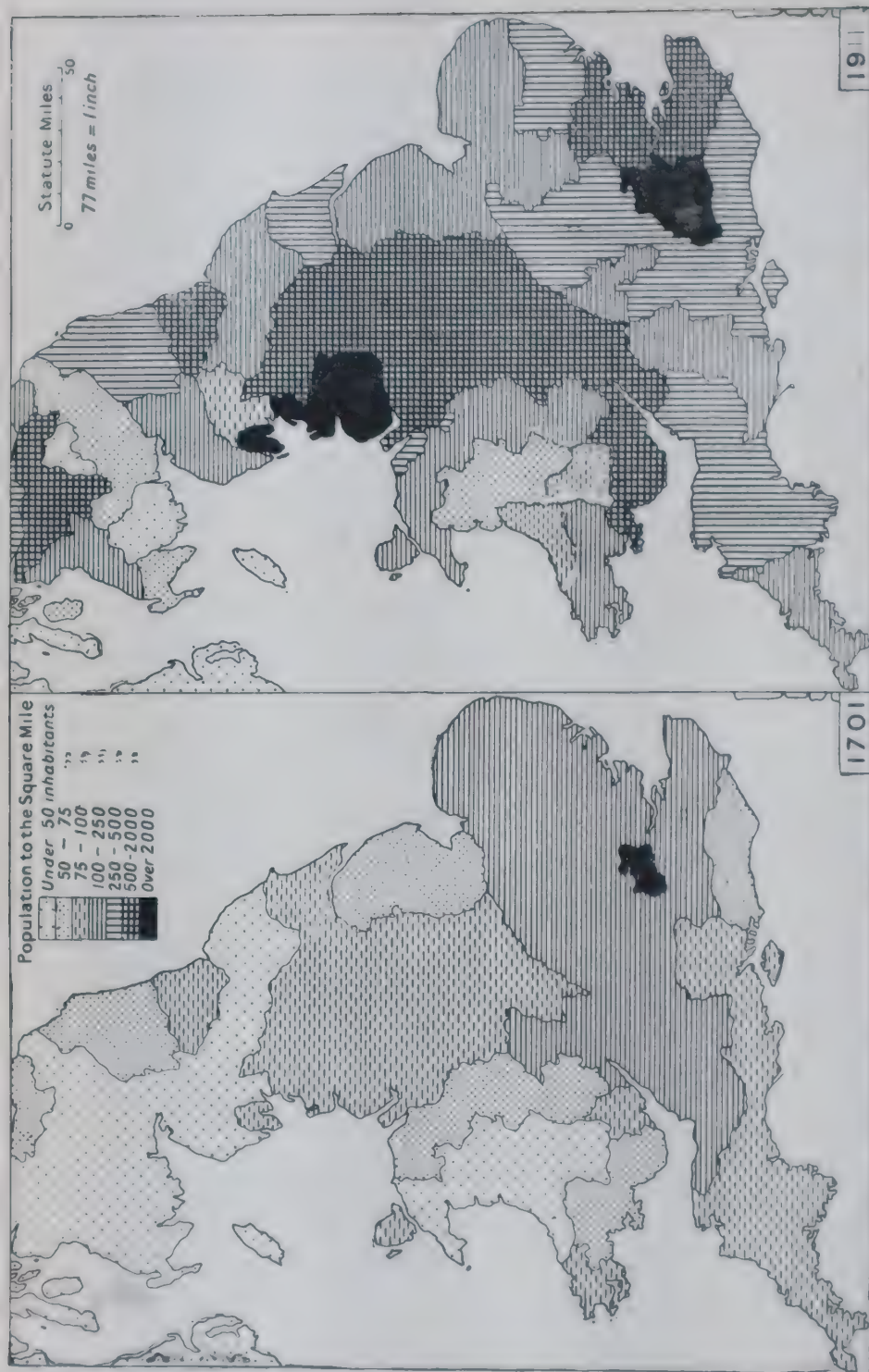


FIG. 60.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN SOUTH BRITAIN BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

In 1701 the counties round London and Bristol were relatively densely peopled. In the sparsely peopled borderland of the North there was already a population of colliers in Northumberland and Durham. In Scotland there was a rather more dense population in Lothian round the capital.

FIG. 61.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN SOUTH BRITAIN AFTER THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1911.

In 1911 most of the population of the country was gathered into two regions, the one round the Metropolis, the other extending through the west from Bristol to Leeds. Specially dense was the peopling on the one hand of Lancashire, and on the other hand of Middlesex and Surrey. In the north the map shows the influence of the railways and industries of Durham and Clydeside.

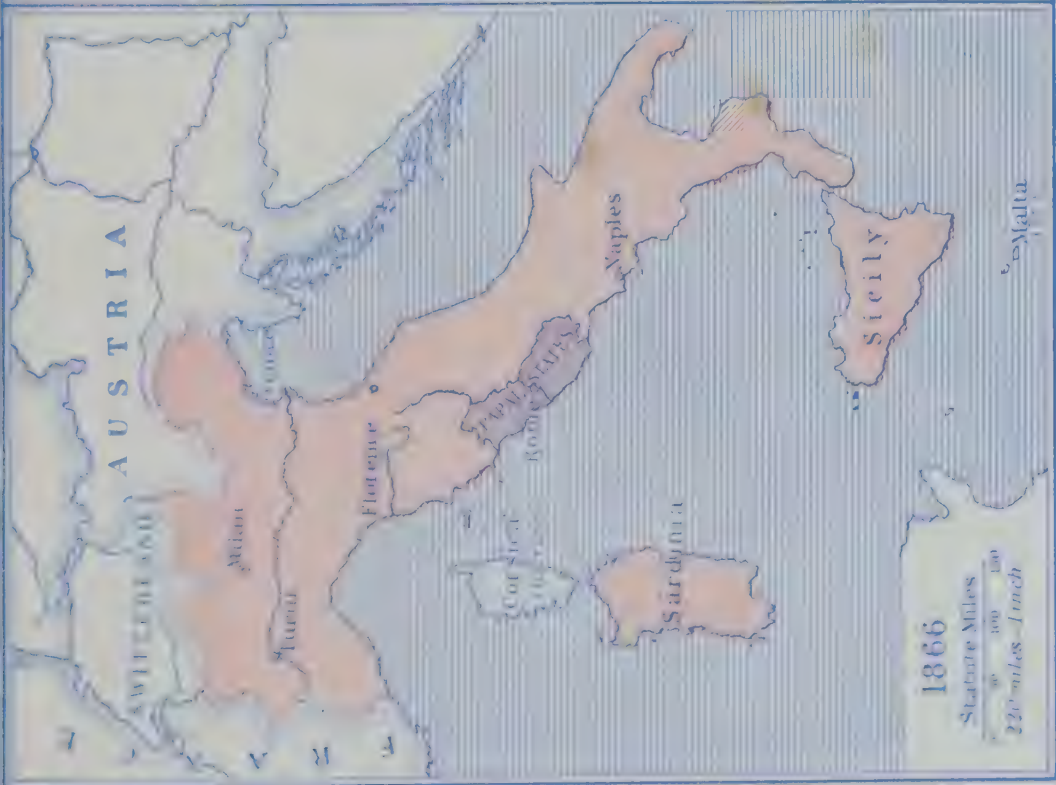
Just as the Russians in their forests were obliged to organize a cavalry of Cossacks to keep the invading hordes of Asia out of the grassy steppeland which was the Russian border, so Britain has been compelled to organize a fleet to clear from the seas which constitute her border the ships which would invade her from the Continent. In the time of Queen Elizabeth we were not safe until the Armada had been defeated. In the time of William III we were not safe until the French fleet had been defeated at La Hogue. In the time of Napoleon I we were not safe until the French and Spanish fleets had suffered their final defeat at Trafalgar.

Now there is a great distinction between land power and sea power. Even the might of Napoleon grew rapidly less as his army marched into the depths of Russia, for troops had to be left on the line of communications. A ship, on the other hand, carries her own supplies, and the fleet which commands the ocean can establish local bases of supply in islands and peninsulas, such as Malta and Gibraltar. These local bases may be compared to anchored store-ships for the replenishment of the fleet. Therefore the navy which sufficed to clear the enemy from the Narrow Seas and to prevent invasion, was also able to command all the seas surrounding Europe, the remote as well as the near. When two fleets are at war and one of them defeats the other, the victorious ships may sail whither they will. Moreover when the

enemy's ships have been cleared from the sea, the merchant ships of the victorious power may cross the water without serious let or hindrance. This was the situation in which Britain found herself after Trafalgar. On the one hand she could safely transport armies to the Spanish Peninsula, and on the other hand her merchant ships were free of all the ocean outside Europe.

After Trafalgar British supremacy at sea was not seriously challenged during the nineteenth century. We were not pressed by the competition of other sea powers to build a very large navy. Russia might threaten the Indian Empire overland, but the Russian navy was not able to prevent the British from sailing into the Black Sea. So it happened that during all the period of European history dealt with in the last four chapters, Britain was practically supreme and unchallenged in the distant parts of the globe except in the United States. Great use was made of the opportunity which thus came to us, for a reason which we must now consider.

About a hundred and fifty years ago an important change came over our country. From being an agricultural people, who took to the sea only to defend our islands against threats from the Continent, we became a nation of miners and manufacturers. This change is known as the Industrial Revolution. A kindred change took place in regard to agriculture itself, as the result of new methods introduced from Holland. In the place



VI.—THE COMPLETION OF ITALIAN UNITY.

of inefficient cultivation in common by whole villages, the land was enclosed and divided into separate farms, each completely controlled by its own farmer. A rotation of crops, and not merely an occasional fallow, became the prevalent practice. Artificial grasses, such as clover, were sown



FIG. 62.—LONDON—COMPARISON OF AREAS.

Population of London in 1750, 1,000,000; population of County of London in 1911, 4,500,000; Population of Greater London (Police Area) in 1911, 7,250,000.

to make richer hay. Turnips and other roots rendered it possible to supply fresh meat in the winter time. The result of these and similar innovations was that in the middle of the eighteenth century there were not infrequent years in which we exported food to the Continent.

The most important change, however, was based on the extended use of coal. Hitherto charcoal

had been employed for the smelting of iron, but the forests were being exhausted, and the land was being cleared for the new agriculture. With the introduction of coal-smelting the output of iron was greatly increased, and the industry was at the

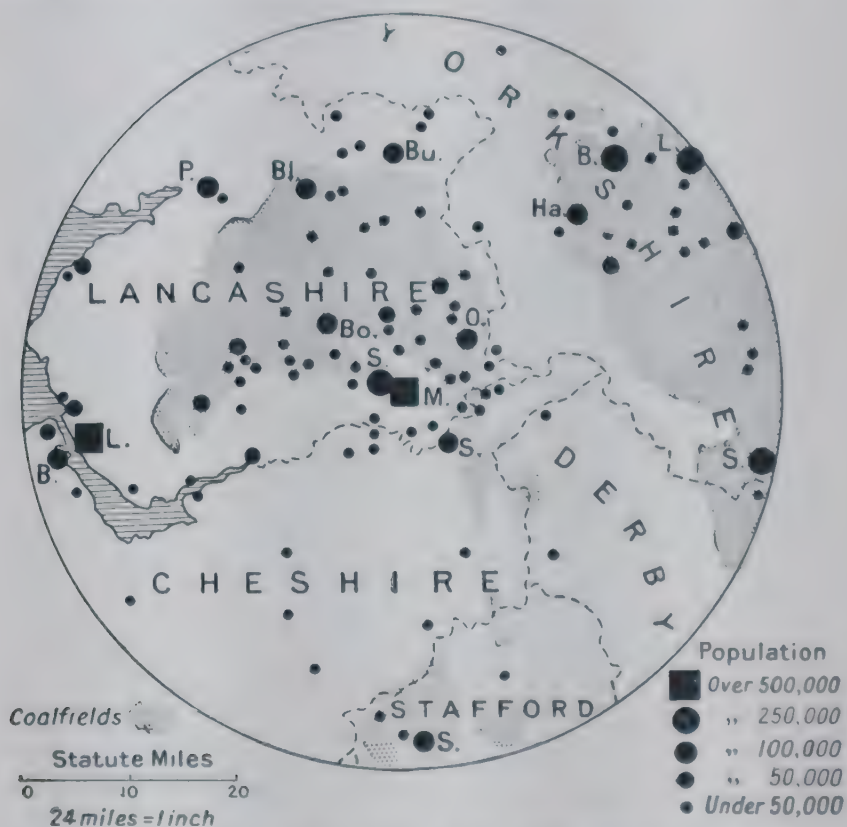


FIG. 63.—A DISTRICT OF THE NEW ENGLAND OF THE NORTH. Within this circle there were, according to the Census of 1911, nine million people.

same time removed from the forest counties of the south to the moorlands of the north, for there were the deposits of coal. Then James Watt of Glasgow invented the steam engine, and other men devised machinery for spinning and weaving wool and cotton which could be driven by the new

power. The result was that the textile industries which had previously been domestic, were removed from the farmhouses and the little market towns of the south, and were concentrated mainly in factories erected beside the collieries



FIG. 64.—GREATER LONDON.

Within this circle there were, according to the Census of 1911, nine million people. In other words within the two circles represented on this and the preceding page there resided in 1911 considerably more than one-third of the population of the whole British Isles, though the area contained within the two circles measures only some eight thousand square miles, or less than one fifteenth of the total area of the British Isles.

of the north and west. A new England sprang into existence, newer than the New England of America. From being little towns of three or four thousand inhabitants, places like Manchester,

Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham grew in a single generation to be great cities, and Liverpool also became great as their port. In Scotland, Glasgow increased both as a port and a manufacturing town, the northern equivalent of Liverpool and Manchester and Birmingham put together. Canals were dug to carry food from the fertile



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FIG. 65.—BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION—A CHARCOAL BURNER IN THE FOREST.

districts to the relatively barren region in which the new industrial population was increasing, and roads and rapid coaches became necessary for the transport of merchants and the mails.

The Industrial Revolution in Britain was in full progress at the time of the French wars. It was the new agricultural and industrial wealth of our

land which enabled us to fight through the long struggle, and to wear down Napoleon. At the same time England and Scotland were united in a degree they had never been before. England grew up, as we have seen, in the southern plain of Great Britain, and there was a broad border



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FIG. 66.—AFTER THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION—A BLAST FURNACE.

of moorland waste between England and Scotland. The development of the industries of the north established a great population around these very moorlands, a population intermediate in its character between the Scotch and the English. Both countries, moreover, began to experience the same economic needs. With the increase of the



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FIG. 67.—COTTON SPINNING BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

iron and textile industries, Britain ceased to export food, and the demand for colonial wares increased, such as sugar and tobacco. At the same time it became necessary to find foreign markets for our manufactured products. So it happened that the Scotchmen of Glasgow began to take a new interest in the empire and the fleet. They had come to have the same commercial interests as the English, and a sense of imperial comradeship was developed in the place of the strong dislike which had long continued between the two nations, notwithstanding their common Protestant religion, their one king, and—after the Act of Union of 1707—their one Parliament.

The Continental System of Napoleon shut us out from the European market, except in so far as our goods were extensively smuggled into the Continent. It is said that Napoleon's own troops were often clothed in British smuggled cloth. In the main, however, we were driven to dispose of our wares across the ocean, and the victory of Trafalgar opened to us widely the ocean paths. Thus was developed not a mere cross Channel traffic of small ships, but a great system of ocean-borne commerce. Already before the Industrial Revolution commenced the older ports, London, Bristol, and Glasgow, had begun to increase with



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FIG. 68.—COTTON SPINNING AFTER THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

the import of tobacco and sugar. They now took on a fresh growth, together with the new port of Liverpool. The population of London doubled in the course of the eighteenth century, and in the time of Napoleon the Metropolis already contained a million souls.

When peace was made after Waterloo, Britain found herself in occupation of most of the colonies of the Continental Powers. While Holland had been submerged in the Napoleonic Empire the Dutch possessions beyond the seas had been fair booty for the British fleet. By the Peace of Vienna the Dutch establishments at the Cape of Good Hope and in Ceylon were ceded to Britain, and also some of the French islands in the West Indies. Thus we emerged from our last great war with France with the beginning of a new overseas empire to replace that which had been lost in North America.

During the Napoleonic wars the industry and commerce of Britain had been peacefully developed while our continental competitors were ruined by the invasion of their homes. At the very time, therefore, when we had multiplied our ships and had won colonies in which to grow tropical wares, we had increased the output of the factories at home.

Thus it happened that in 1815 we had a very large share of the world's oceanic traffic, tropical production, and industries. On the Continent the military power of Russia became for a time decisive,

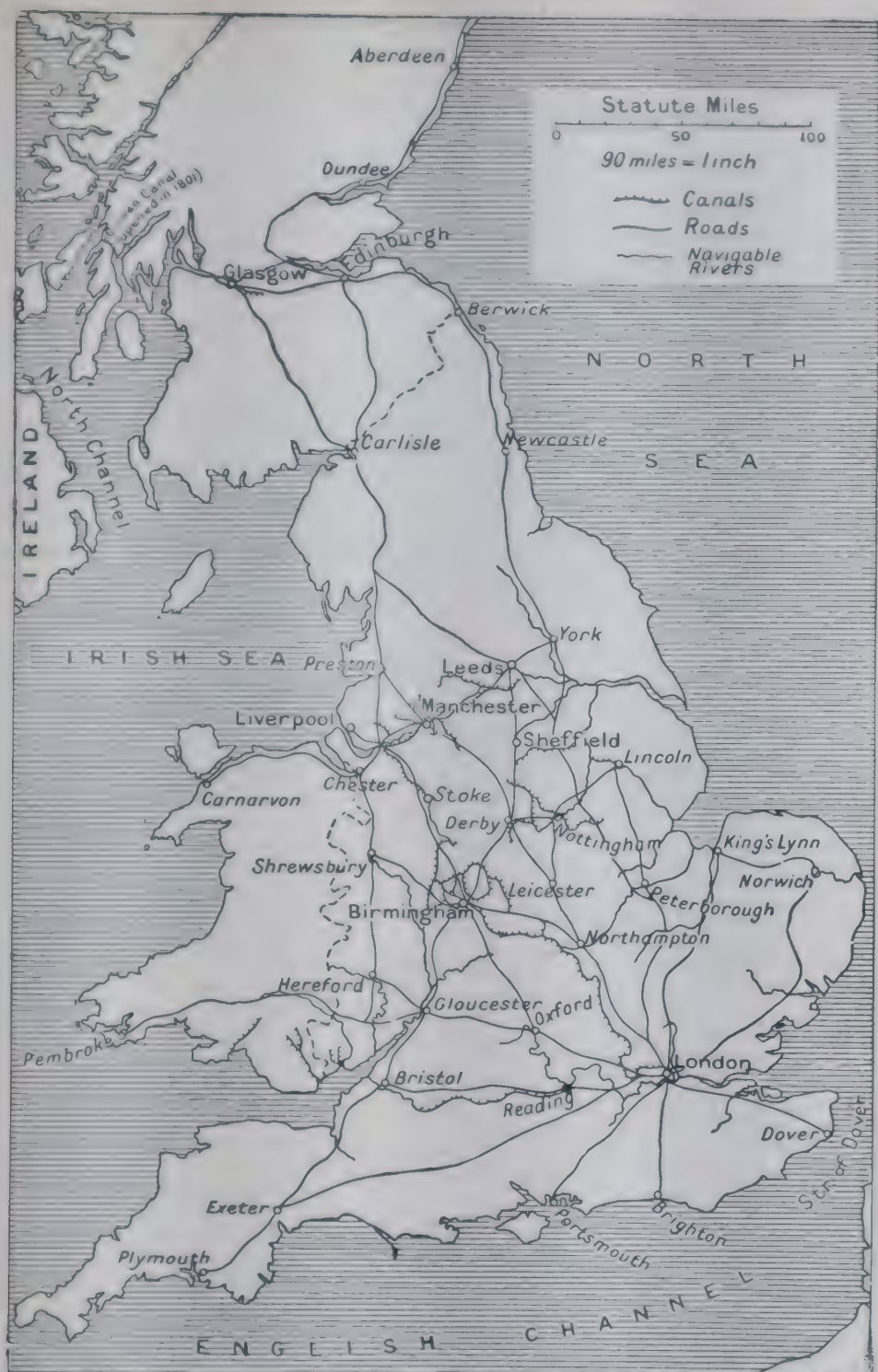


FIG 69.—PRINCIPAL ROADS AND CANALS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

but it was a power remote from the Narrow Seas and we were not challenged by it as we had been by the power of France. For more than two generations, therefore, Britain took little part in European politics, except in regard to Constantinople. We devoted our efforts to the other parts of the world. Outside the drama of European struggle we worked out our own history in India, in Canada, and on the Ocean. That is the meaning of the first sentence of this chapter: "The Battle of Trafalgar split the stream of history into two channels."

CHAPTER XI. INDIA

WHEN the “factors,” or agents, of the British and French East India Companies first came to India that land was ruled by Mohammedan Emperors, whose seat was at Delhi. The mass of the people were of the ancient Hindu religion, and the Mohammedans had conquered them, entering India from the north-west.

Between the Himalaya Mountains and the Desert of Rajputana there is a strip of fertile plain connecting the Indus and Ganges basins. Through this gate between the desert and the mountains every invader of India from the north-west must necessarily pass. Delhi, therefore, very naturally became the capital of the Mohammedan conquerors of India. In 1911 Delhi was again raised to be the Capital of India, and the seat of the British Viceroy's government. The summer residence of the Viceroy is placed not far away on the foot hills of the Himalayas at Simla.

The Mogul dynasty of the Mohammedans lasted at Delhi some two centuries. It was contemporary with our Tudor and Stuart kings. The fall of the Moguls began in the time of our Queen Anne. When the ships of the East India

Companies first arrived from Britain and from France, and the European merchants first established "factories," or warehouses, on the Indian coasts, they came as humble traders suing for concessions from the officials of the distant "Great



FIG. 70.—THE PLAIN OF NORTHERN INDIA WITH ITS MOUNTAIN BORDER.

Note the passage between the Desert and the Mountains which leads from the Khyber entrance to India upon the position of Delhi.

Mogul." The most important of the early British factories was at Surat, in the Gulf of Cambay.

In the middle of the seventeenth century the English East India Company became possessed of the important island of Bombay, about a hundred

miles south of Surat. This island had belonged to the Portuguese traders in the Indian Ocean, and was given to our King Charles II as a dowry with his Portuguese Queen. By him it was handed over to the East India Company, who moved their chief factory thither from Surat, and a city began to grow where previously there had been only a fishing village.

A little later, or about two hundred years ago, the reigning Mogul family at Delhi lost its vigour and ceased to control its more distant viceroys. These began to act as independent princes acknowledging only the nominal suzerainty of the Great Mogul at Delhi. Such were the Nizam of Hyderabad in the centre of Southern India, and the Nawab of Bengal in the fertile delta of the Ganges. When Britain and France went to war in Europe, and British and French ships fought on the ocean road to India, the factors of the two companies in India itself began to intrigue against one another with these local princes.

The part of India, however, in which the rivalry of British and French, and the decay of the Mogul Empire, were first apparent was not at Bombay but at Madras on the east coast. There, in the fertile plain which lies between the foot of the Eastern Ghats and the shore of the Bay of Bengal, there existed a populous state known as the Carnatic. In a dispute concerning the succession to the throne of this state the French supported one of the claimants and the British the other.

It was a Frenchman, Dupleix, who had the genius first to see the European opportunity in the disorder which was arising. The French, whose factory was at Pondicherry, laid siege to the fort of Trichinopoly, which was held by the British



FIG. 71.—SOUTHERN INDIA IN THE MIDDLE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

and their Nawab. The garrison was reduced almost to extremity, when a young clerk, or “writer,” named Robert Clive, employed in Fort George, as Madras was then

called, threw himself with a small force into the Fort of Arcot some distance north of Trichinopoly, and drew round him a portion of the besiegers of Trichinopoly. His defence was so energetic that at last it had the effect of relieving Trichinopoly. Thus the British party were victorious and the Carnatic became an appanage of the British East India Company.

About this time the British factor at Howrah, on the Hooghly River in Bengal, purchased some land on the opposite side of the Hooghly and there built Fort William, now Calcutta. The Nawab of

Bengal, whose capital was at Murshidabad, quarrelled with the East India Company and attacked Fort William. Most of the British escaped down the

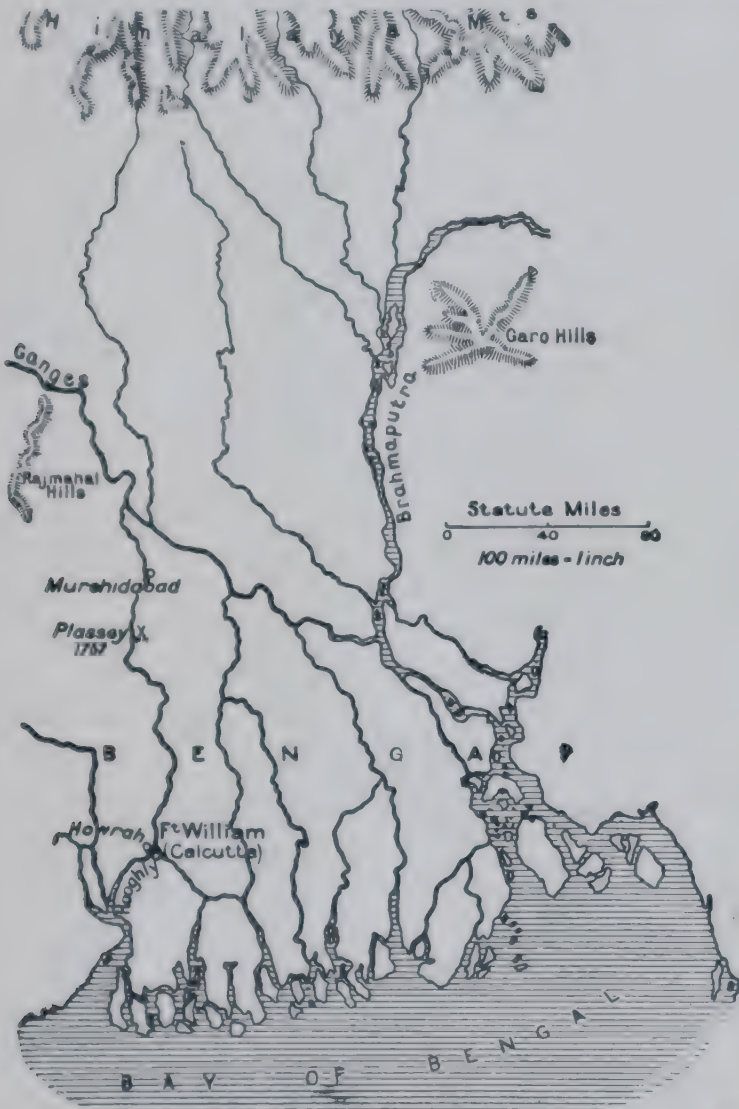


FIG. 72.—BENGAL IN THE MIDDLE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

river, but one hundred and forty-six of them were captured in the fort, and were forced for a night into a small and airless cell from which only twenty-

three emerged alive in the morning. That cell is known in history as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Colonel Clive, as he had now become, was immediately sent northward from Madras. He re-established the position of the British at Fort William.

A few years later the Nawab of Bengal again quarrelled with the Company. Clive marched northward with an army, of which only two hundred were British, and attacked and defeated the Nawab and his French allies at Plassey. The direct rule of the great province of Bengal was then taken over by the East India Company.

Thus were founded in India the three Presidencies of Bombay, Madras, and Bengal or Calcutta. A company of merchants and sea captains found themselves compelled in self-defence to administer great territories inhabited by many million people of alien speech and religion.

After the conquest of Bengal, a Governor-General, Warren Hastings, was appointed to administer from Calcutta all the British possessions in India. In the time of Hastings the British took over the administration of the very heart of the Mogul Empire at Delhi and Agra. About the same time Hyder Ali, the Mohammedan Raja of Mysore, on the plateau in the far south of India, intrigued with the French, and we were obliged to fight with him and with his son Tippu Sultan. The Company's forces were commanded by Colonel Wellesley, afterwards the great Duke of Wellington. He led the British army to

Seringapatam, and overthrew Tippu Sultan. Thus was defeated a very dangerous French intrigue in India, the significance of which will be understood when it is remembered that Napoleon was at the time with his army in Egypt.

We may see on the map that as the result of the conquests of Clive, Warren Hastings, and Colonel Wellesley the British power in India extended at the beginning of the eighteenth century over two considerable regions. On the one hand it spread from Fort William or Calcutta through Bengal to Agra and Delhi, although it did not include the Kingdom of Oudh at Lucknow. On the other hand it consisted of the Carnatic in the plain around Fort George or Madras. Mysore on the plateau above the Carnatic was also in British occupation, although it had not been annexed. At this juncture a remarkable movement took place in the west of India which tested to the utmost the rising British rule.

A native prince, the Peshwa of the Marathas, organized a military power on the plateau above the Western Ghats in the neighbourhood of Bombay. The Marathas are Hindus. Had they succeeded in their attempt to conquer India they would have overthrown not merely the British but also the Mohammedans. We had to fight several great wars with the Marathas, whose raids extended from Poona nearly to Delhi in the north and nearly to Calcutta in the east. In the first of these wars the British forces were com-

manded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, who won the great battle of Assaye. His brother the Marquis Wellesley was then Governor-General. Sir Arthur Wellesley later returned to England and was thence sent out to fight with the French in the Peninsula. At last the Marathas were overcome, and we



FIG. 73.—THE MARATHA SWAY IN INDIA AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Names of the Maratha Chiefs: The Peshwa at Poona, the Gaikwar at Baroda, the Bhonsla at Nagpur, Holkar at Indore, Sindhia at Gwalior.

annexed to Bombay the territory of the Peshwa round Poona. Other of the Maratha princes, Sindhia, Holkar, and the Gaikwar, continued, however, to rule in the lands which they had conquered, although they made peace with the British

and conquered no more. Sindhia has his capital at Gwalior, and Holkar at Indore, and the Gaikwar is seated at Baroda. The territories of a fifth Maratha prince, the Bhonsla, now constitute the Central Provinces, whose capital is at Nagpur.

The French intrigued against us in India for the last time during the Maratha wars. In 1805 Trafalgar was won, and we were free from the competition of our French rivals. After 1805 we had no more to fear from over the sea. But the power of Russia, after the Peace of 1815, and the vast expansion of her empire into Asia, compelled the British Government to consider for the first time the north-west frontier of India. In that region, in the Punjab, a war-like sect of the Hindus, known as the Sikhs, had become established, and threatened the peace of India. It was necessary to wage several wars with them and with the Afghans beyond. The battles of the Sikh wars were some of the hardest fought of all the British victories in India, and more than once we suffered disaster in Afghanistan. In the end, however, we took the Punjab, and the Sikhs enrolled themselves in the Company's army and became some of the most loyal and courageous of our soldiers. Sind on the lower Indus was also conquered and added to the Presidency of Bombay.

We were next compelled to turn eastward against the Burmese, with whom we fought two wars. In the first we took the coastal provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim, and also the great valley

of Assam. In the second we annexed Pegu or Lower Burma. Finally, in the days when Lord Dalhousie was Governor-General, Oudh was annexed in the year 1852 on account of the mis-

rule from which it had suffered under its Nawab.

The vast Empire which had thus been upbuilt by the middle of the nineteenth century, extended from Bengal up the plain of the Ganges to the Punjab and down the Indus to Sind. Thus a belt of British territory isolated from the remainder of Asia all the centre and south of India, and the British command of the ocean controlled access to the Indian coasts. The responsibility had, however, become too great to be borne any longer by the East India Com-



FIG. 74.—BURMA.

Pagan was the most ancient Burmese capital, contemporary with the Norman Conquest of England. Mandalay is the modern capital. Bhamo is the frontier town towards China. Rangoon is the modern port. The Irrawaddy is navigable to Bhamo. The chief railway runs from Rangoon by the Sittang Valley to Mandalay. A barrier of mountain separates Assam and Arakan from Burma proper.

pany. Discontent was rife, and the British troops were too few in number as compared with the native troops, whose officers only were British. At last, in 1857, the native army became mutinous. Two or



FIG. 75.—NORTHERN INDIA AT THE TIME OF THE MUTINY.

The communications up country from Calcutta were by river and by the Grand Trunk Road. Of the provinces of the Indo-Gangetic Plain Bengal and Agra had been annexed in the eighteenth century, but Oudh and the Punjab were annexed only shortly before the Mutiny. The Maratha chief Sindhia remained loyal to the British during the Mutiny, although he had to fly from Gwalior.

three errors of judgment were made in difficult circumstances by the British officers in command. A regiment at Meerut, not far from Delhi, murdered its white officers, and troops were not instantly despatched from Delhi to punish them. The

result was that the mutineers were reinforced to such an extent that presently an army had mustered which was powerful enough to advance upon the British position at Delhi.

All down the valley of the Ganges the native troops rose, and either murdered their officers or



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FIG. 76.—THE RUINS OF THE RESIDENCY, LUCKNOW.

The Residency was so named because it was the house of the British Resident at the Court of the Nawab of Oudh, whose capital was at Lucknow.

sent them flying. A few hundred British, with their women and children, and the few native troops that remained loyal, gathered together into the Residencies beside the cities of Cawnpore and Lucknow. Between Allahabad and Calcutta,

however, our people managed to hold their own, and repressed and punished insubordination wherever it occurred.

At this time it must be remembered there was no communication from Britain to India except by sailing ship round the Cape of Good Hope, and months elapsed before the news could travel overland through Egypt, and before reinforcements could be sent out by the Cape. By remarkable good fortune, however, an expedition was just then on its way to fight a war in China. The Governor-General of India took the responsibility of ordering this expedition to Calcutta. Under Sir Henry Havelock a small force now advanced from Allahabad for the relief of Cawnpore and Lucknow, but by treacherous information the defenders of Cawnpore were induced to leave their station and to go down to the river with the idea that they were to be allowed to escape in boats. They were murdered, every man, woman, and child, before Havelock could get to them. When he arrived at Cawnpore, Havelock was in his turn beset, and it was only after three efforts that he succeeded in advancing to Lucknow. He brought an invaluable reinforcement to the garrison of that place, round which the siege closed again, until a large army fresh from Britain, commanded by Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde, came to the relief.

Meanwhile events had taken a turn for the good

in the far interior at Delhi. The Sikhs of the Punjab, so recently conquered and with such difficulty, were held to their loyalty by the courage and genius of Sir John Lawrence, afterwards Lord Lawrence, and a reinforcement was sent from Lahore to Delhi. The little British army established itself on a ridge north of the city. It was



FIG. 77.—THE WELL MEMORIAL, CAWNPORE.

The bodies of massacred white officers and their families were thrown down this well

impossible to surround the place and to reduce it by famine, for the numbers of our force were insufficient. Therefore it was necessary to carry the city by assault, and after long preparation and repeated efforts this was at last accomplished. The remainder of the mutineers, who took refuge in Central India, were hunted down by Sir Colin

Campbell, and peace was restored. The East India Company was abolished, and direct British rule established in India in 1858.

Contrast this terrible Mutiny in India with the earlier crisis of the American Revolution. During the Mutiny we were supreme on the ocean and free to send out reinforcements without fear of foreign intervention. Two generations earlier, however, the French fleet had command of the Atlantic, and the British army was obliged to surrender at Yorktown. The Battle of Trafalgar had been fought in the interval.



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FIG. 78.—THE CASHMERE GATE, DELHI.

Notice the damage done to the gate by the bombardment.

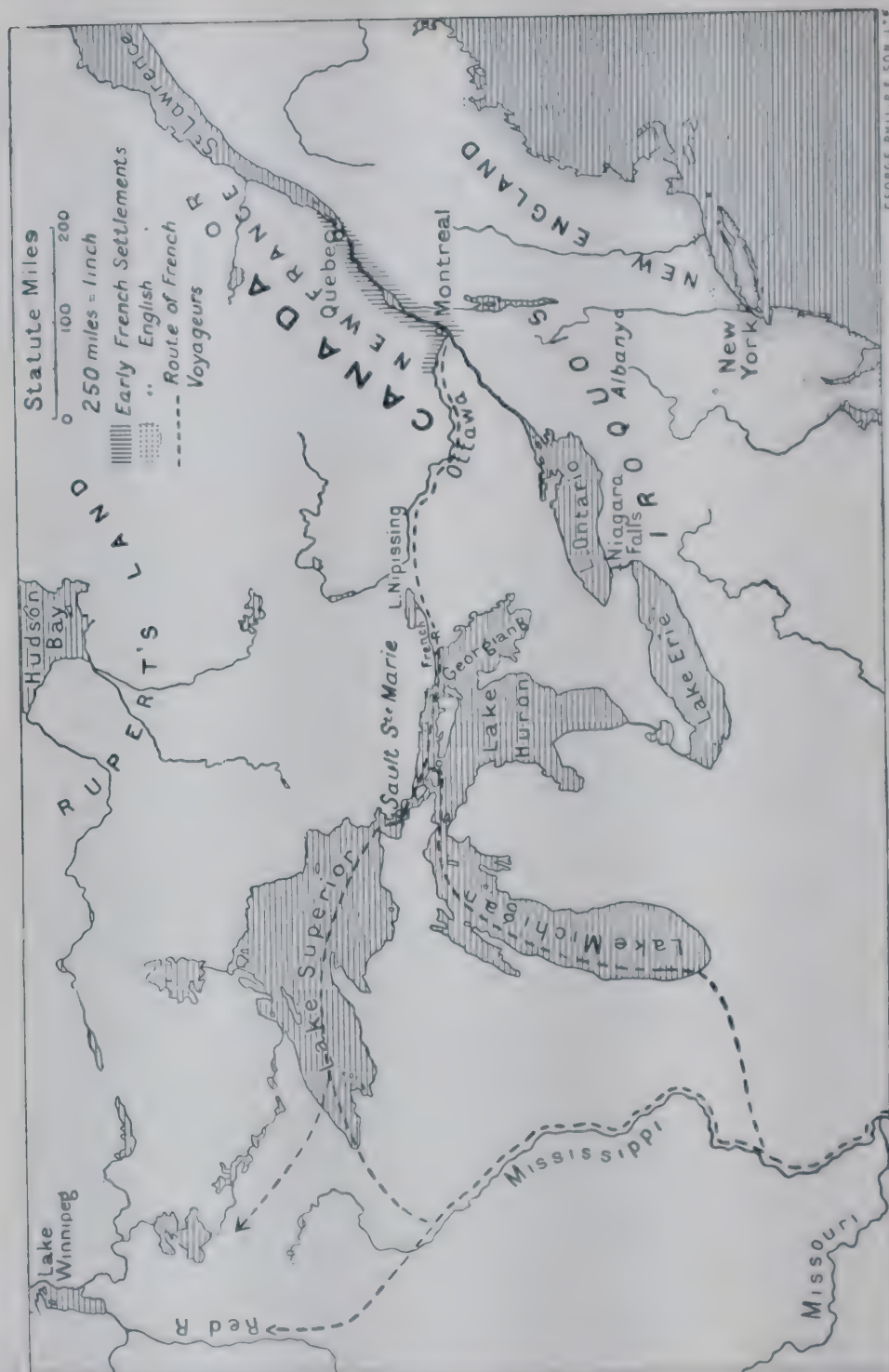
CHAPTER XII. CANADA

IN the middle of the eighteenth century the French colony of Canada occupied a small district of fertile ground extending down the St. Lawrence from the island of Montreal to a little below Quebec. The English were established not only at Boston and Philadelphia, but also at New York, where they had displaced the Dutch, and they were settled along the Hudson River to the head of the tideway near Albany. West of Albany along the southern shore of Lake Ontario as far as the Niagara Falls there lived the confederacy of the Iroquois Indians, feared of all the Indians round. The English at Albany were friends with the Iroquois, therefore the French and their Indian allies did not advance from Montreal up the rapids of the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario, nor did they occupy the peninsula, now so productive, which projects between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron. The Jesuit missionaries and their Indian friends went by canoe up the river Ottawa, and so avoided the Iroquois. Lifting their canoes out of the water, they carried them past falls and rapids, or from the head of one stream to that of another. So they came to Lake Nipissing, and then descended the

little French river to the waters of the Georgian Bay, whence the way lay open over the great twin lakes Huron and Michigan, to the site of Chicago, or up the Sault Sainte Marie, or "leap of water," to Lake Superior. From the far ends of Lakes Superior and Michigan the French crossed to the head waters of the Mississippi, and so descended the ever growing channel to the Gulf of Mexico. Their settlements along the Mississippi received the name of Louisiana from the French kings Louis.

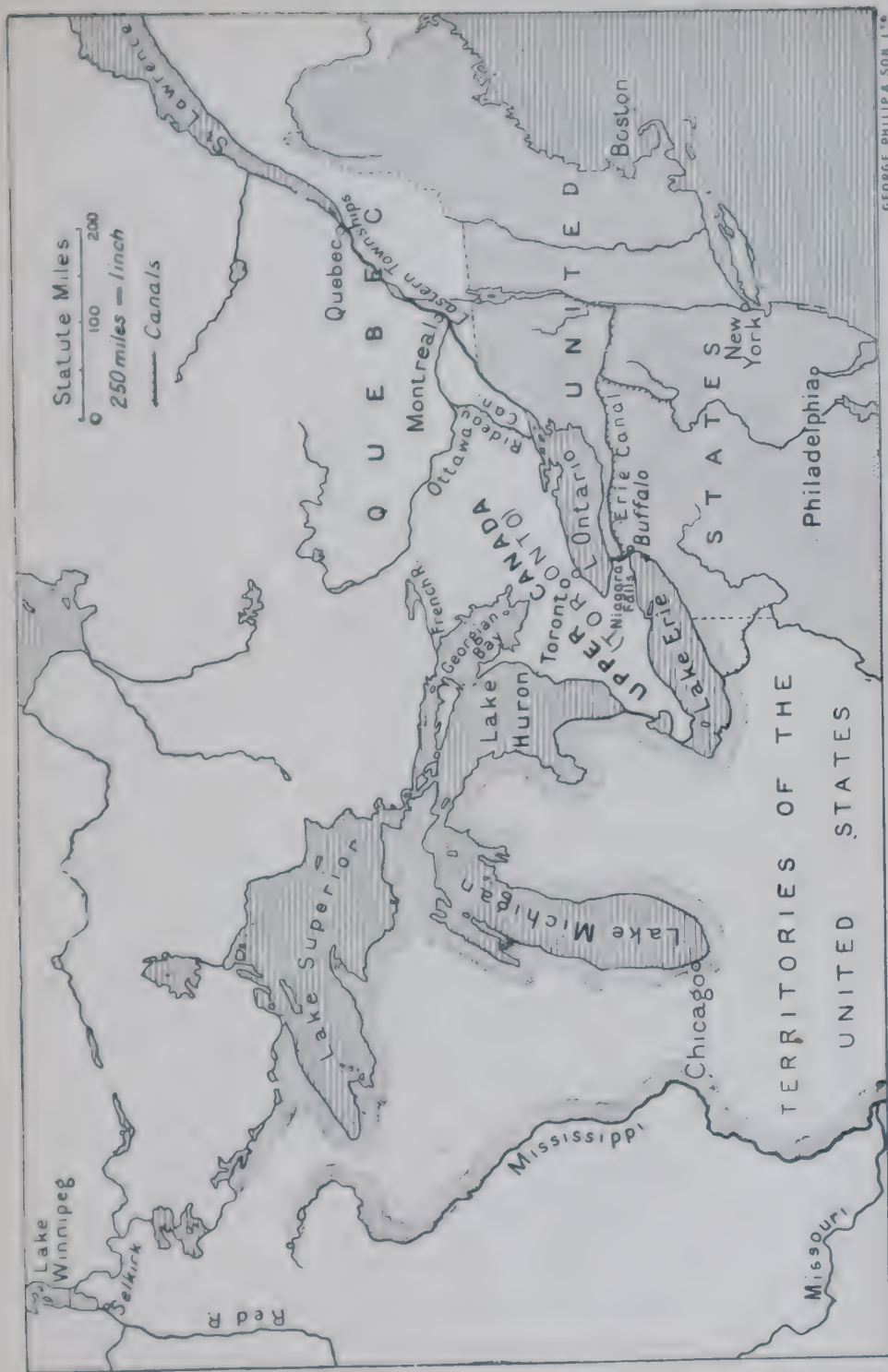
In all this vast region of Canada and Louisiana there was only one small district, that of Quebec and Montreal, where the French settled as farmers in any number. At the time of the Seven Years' War there may have been some eighty thousand inhabitants in that district. At the same time there were fully a million English settlers in the Atlantic colonies which became the United States.

In the Seven Years' War our fleet captured Louisburg, the French fortress on the island of Cape Breton, at the entry to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Then, as already narrated, General Wolfe went up the St. Lawrence in a fleet commanded by Admiral Saunders and defeated the French at Quebec in 1759. The next year Montreal was taken, and by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, Canada and also Louisiana east of the Mississippi were conveyed to Britain. The remainder of Louisiana was abandoned to the Spaniards of Mexico. Most fortunately there



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FIG. 79.—CANADA EARLY IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.



GEORGE PHILIP & SON L^{DS}

FIG. 80—EASTERN CANADA EARLY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

were stipulations in the Treaty of Paris to the effect that the French language, laws, and religion should be respected in Canada. The British Government kept scrupulous faith in regard to these stipulations. When the American Revolution broke out the French Canadians had little hope that the French flag could be set up again in Canada, and on the other hand they hated the American colonists who were their neighbours. So they remained loyal to the British Home Government which had acted fairly by them. At the beginning of the war an American army marched upon Quebec, but was defeated under the walls of the city, and neither force nor persuasion succeeded either then or afterwards in bringing the French Canadians into the new Union as a fourteenth State.

When the Treaty of Independence was signed in the year 1783 Canada remained British, and thus there was a most curious reversal of the position in North America. The British flag flew no longer over the lands which had been British before 1763, but it flew over lands which had not been British before that date. The island of Newfoundland was an exception, for it has been consistently British from the time of John Cabot, although curiously by the Treaty of Utrecht certain rights were given to French fishermen. They were allowed to land their nets on parts of the coast of Newfoundland for the purpose of drying them, and they were allowed to take

bait from the shore. Frequent quarrels have arisen in regard to this Treaty, and these have been finally settled only lately.

It must not be supposed, however, that all the English colonists in America were disloyal. Many, especially of the educated classes, remained true to the old country and to the idea of a United Empire. When the war was over, forty thousand of these "United Empire Loyalists" forsook their comfortable homes and crossed the frontier to found new homes in the Canadian backwoods. Professional men, such as judges and magistrates, and women of delicate nurture, spent the remainder of their lives in the rough toil and hard deprivations of pioneering in a land where the winter lasts for half the year. So remote and penurious was their existence that it is said that for a whole generation there was no printing press in the province which is now Ontario. It was from this United Empire stock that the English-speaking Canadians sprang. Some of the migrants went into the maritime provinces, and there founded the city of St. John in New Brunswick. Others settled in the district now known as the Eastern Townships, lying on the opposite bank of the St. Lawrence to Montreal. Most, however, crossed into the Lake Peninsula, and there established Upper Canada, or what is now the Province of Ontario. Some years later they founded the city of Toronto, which has grown to be the rival of Montreal. A noble stock was this, of men and women chosen by the fiercest of

tests, who thus became founders of the new colony. Many of their families had come twice through the fire, for they were descended from the Puritans, who under similar conditions of persecution had left their native England to found New England.

A third element entered into the population of the part of North America which remained British. An English Company organized a trade in furs

from the shore of Hudson Bay. The factors of this Company were chiefly Scotchmen. They came up the Nelson River to Lake Winnipeg, and then pushed up the Saskatchewan River westward to the



FIG. 81.—MONTREAL AND ENVIRONS.

site of Edmonton, and up the Red River southward to the site of Winnipeg. A second Company was organized at Montreal, of French Voyageurs and Scotchmen, who sought to share in the lucrative fur trade of the north-west along the line of the Ottawa River and over the waters of Lake Superior. The two Companies came into collision on the Red River, where was the Scottish settlement of Selkirk. After some loss of life they

were amalgamated about a hundred years ago to form the great Hudson Bay Company. From this source in large measure arose the Scottish community in the otherwise French city of Montreal.

During the first twenty or thirty years of the nineteenth century many settlers went out from England to the new province of Upper Canada. All this time there was a British garrison maintained at Halifax, with the result that the central part of Nova Scotia became more English in type than any other section of the North American Provinces. To add to the variety, the north coast of Nova Scotia and the island of Cape Breton were largely peopled by Highlanders, who to this day speak Gaelic. They removed thither after the conquest of the Highlands, which ensued upon the suppression of the Stuart rebellion of 1745.

The French Revolution, by overthrowing the monarchy and the State Church in the old France, was abhorrent to the French Canadians, who to this day remain deeply loyal to Rome, and still on occasion love to fly the white flag with the golden lilies of the old monarchy of France from which they were parted in 1763.

Events thus kept Canada true to Britain through the Napoleonic struggle, and when in 1812 and 1813 war broke out again between the United States and the United Kingdom, the Canadians—both English-speaking and French-speaking—defended themselves with valour, and maintained the

integrity of their frontier, notwithstanding the increasing number of the American population.

None the less, it was long before the French of Lower Canada became reconciled to the establishment of the vigorous colony of United Empire Loyalists in their neighbourhood in Upper Canada.



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FIG. 82.—THE FRENCH CATHEDRAL (NOTRE DAME) AT MONTREAL.

The two colonies were constituted separate Provinces in 1791, and to each was granted representative government, but the ministries were made responsible to the Governors and not as in the mother country to the elected assemblies. In 1837, when Queen Victoria came to the throne, there was great

discontent in both Canadas, and Lord Durham was sent out to investigate its causes. He sent home a famous report, in accordance with which responsible government was given to Canada, the two provinces being reunited. The Canadian Ministers, responsible henceforward to the Canadian



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FIG. 83.—A FRENCH-CANADIAN VILLAGE IN QUEBEC PROVINCE.

House of Commons, became the real rulers of the colony. The seat of the capital was fixed in the new city of Ottawa, on the Ottawa River.

As we glance back over the events narrated in this chapter, it will be evident that the crisis of Canadian development was in 1812 and 1813. Then for the second time the United States was

at war with the British Empire. This war was due to our interference with neutral shipping on the ocean, an interference to which, as has been seen, we were driven by the Berlin Decrees of Napoleon. In 1812, however, unlike 1783, we had safe command of the Atlantic, and were able to



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FIG. 84.—PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.

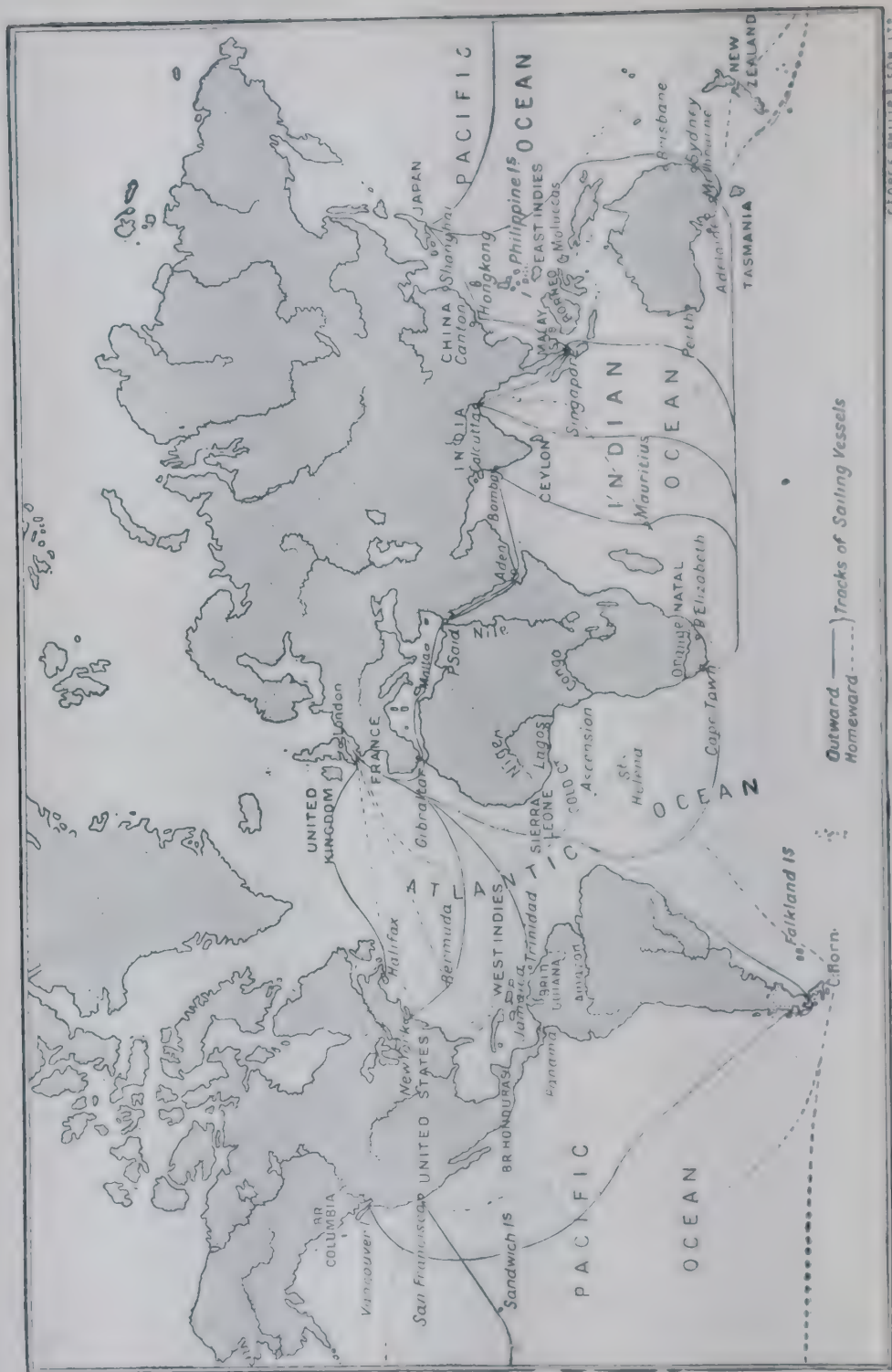
land troops to attack both Washington and New Orleans. Thus the full brunt of the American attack was averted from Canada. In other words, we owe the preservation of Canada in 1812, no less than of India in 1857, to the supreme victory of Trafalgar in 1805.

CHAPTER XIII. THE PLANTATIONS AND TRADING STATIONS

APART from the lost colonies which have become the United States of America, our two considerable possessions over the seas in the days before the Napoleonic war were Canada and India. But the British Empire also included, when the peace was made in 1815, a number of small settlements along the oceanic shores and in the islands.

For the most part these were taken during the struggle with France—some of them from Spain and Holland, while those countries were subject to Napoleon. Yet others have been added during the period of our supremacy on the ocean in the nineteenth century.

The first category of the minor stations of the empire consists of the plantations, that is to say tropical islands and strips of tropical coast land, where are grown with native labour and British supervision great quantities of agricultural produce, such as sugar and tobacco. The oldest established of these are in the West India Islands, where Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards as far back as in the time of Oliver Cromwell; Trinidad was captured from the Spaniards during the



GEORGE PHILIPSON 1888

FIG. 85.—THE BRITISH TRADING STATIONS.

Napoleonic war; and Barbados has always been British from the time when it was first occupied after the discovery of America. In addition there are two adjacent territories on the mainland, British Honduras and British Guiana, the latter taken from the Dutch in the Napoleonic war. In all these lands of the West India group the



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FIG. 86. — BRIDGETOWN, THE CAPITAL OF BARBADOS.

labour of the fields is negro, except that coolies have of late been introduced from India into Trinidad and British Guiana. Negro slavery was abolished in 1833, compensation to the extent of twenty millions sterling being paid to the white planters. Of late the West Indies have been depressed, because cane sugar, their chief product, has suffered competition from the beet sugar

of Central Europe. The amount of sugar produced in such a small but densely peopled island as Barbados is extraordinary, and gives some idea of the vast potential wealth of the



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FIG. 87.—TROPICAL VEGETATION IN THE WEST
INDIES.

tropical parts of the world, still for the most part lying under virgin forests. Many hundred million people will no doubt some day dwell where now are the forests of the Amazon Valley, the Congo Valley, and the Malay Islands.

Other rich islands falling under the description of tropical plantations, where torrid heat and oceanic moisture are combined, are Mauritius and Ceylon, the one taken from the French and the other from the Dutch in the Napoleonic war. Dutch law still prevails in Ceylon under the British

flag, and the French language is still spoken in Mauritius. This non-interference with local customs has been characteristic of British rule in all parts of the world. It arose from the fact that our object in annexation has not been to Anglicize, as the Romans Latinized in Gaul and Spain, but rather to keep the peace in regions where we have trading interests.

Possessions of a different character are the great commercial centres of Hong Kong and Singapore. Each of these colonies is a small island bearing what has

grown to be a large city. They are the centres and depôts of our trade in the Far East. To Singapore converge many lines of traffic from all the Malay Archipelago, there to join the main road of oceanic travel, which doubles round the southernmost point of Asia from the Pacific to the Indian waters. Hong Kong is a similar station



FIG. 88. THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, BORNEO AND HONG KONG.



FIG. 89.—BRITISH STATIONS IN THE FAR EAST.

off the coast of China, where the local traffic down the Sikiang River from Canton joins the traffic from the Chinese coast and from Japan, and thence is forwarded southward to Singapore. A small district of the mainland of China has of late been annexed to Hong

Kong, in order to protect the harbour from the guns of a possible enemy. Singapore is now the centre of a still larger group of new British territories on the mainland, the Federated States of the Malay Peninsula. Beside these Malay States are the old trading stations of Malacca and Penang, which together with Singapore form the colony of the Straits Settlements.

Not far away from Singapore are the British territories of North Borneo, fertile new colonies of the plantation type. Romance here attaches to the district of Sara-



FIG. 90.—HONG KONG AND CANTON.

wak, formerly the seat of a piratic government, which was attacked by an English gentleman named Brooke, who was cruising in these seas in his yacht, with the result that he became Rajah of an extensive land. Rajah Brooke civilized his dominion and handed it down to his son, the present Rajah Brooke of Sarawak. The adjacent colony of British North Borneo is administered by the North Borneo Company, just



FIG. 91.—GIBRALTAR.



FIG. 92.—THE MALTESE ISLANDS.

as India used to be administered by the East India Company.

Some distance north of Hong Kong, up a navigable river of China, is the remarkable settlement of Shanghai, inhabited by European merchants, chiefly British, who organize their own police and municipal government. Shanghai is a city of Western aspect, with numerous fine buildings, and capacious warehouses, and commodious

wharves. Yet it is not technically a part of the British Empire, but merely a trading station on Chinese territory, although protected by special treaties.

A third category of the minor British possessions



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FIG. 93.—ADEN FROM THE SEA.

consists of the fortresses and coaling stations on the great sea ways, such as Gibraltar, Malta, and Aden. The first two of these have extensive dockyards for the support of the British Mediterranean fleet. A similar fortified dockyard is in the little Bermuda island, isolated in the midst of the Western Atlan-

tic. In the Southern Atlantic are the far removed stations of Ascension, and St. Helena, and the Falkland Islands, producing little, for the first two are very small, and the third has a boisterous climate. They had value in the days of sailing ships, for they lie on the direct routes round the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. In the event

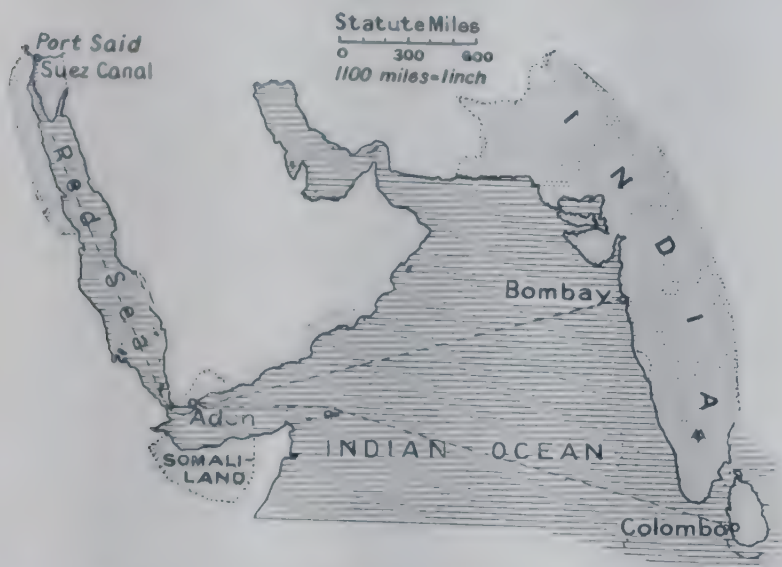


FIG. 94.—ADEN AND THE PROTECTORATES CONNECTED WITH IT IN ASIA AND AFRICA.

of the Suez Canal being closed in time of war they might again become significant.

On the west coast of Africa are minor trading stations, at Sierra Leone, at various points on the Gold Coast, at Lagos, and at other points along the deltaic coast of the great river Niger. Most of these had a sinister importance when British ships conducted the African Slave Trade during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries

in order to supply labour to the southern colonies of North America and to the West Indies. They sank to trading stations and plantations of small importance after the abolition of the Slave Trade. In recent times they have revived, however, with the discovery and development of the fertile regions inland.

We now come to a very different kind of overseas possession—great lengths of coastline in the Eastern and Arctic Seas, which we annexed with no set object either of plantation or trade, but as it was said, by right of discovery. On the west coast of North America we obtained a length of such shoreline, part of which has now become the west coast of the Canadian Dominion. We also annexed there Vancouver Island and the Queen Charlotte Islands. Our claim was based on the fact that our sea captains were the first in those waters. Away in the southern seas we found other vast stretches of coast on the Australian continent and round the neighbouring large islands of Tasmania and New Zealand. So little, however, did we at first care what became of these regions, that it was only by a fortnight that we succeeded in anticipating the French along several hundred miles of the Australian mainland. The coast of what is now South Australia bears many French names, which were given by a French ship just a fortnight too late, after we had hoisted the Union Jack on the headlands. Yet a whole generation had elapsed since Captain Cook

had endowed the British Empire with the shore of the land which he called New South Wales. It is true that Australia, which used to be called New Holland, was first sighted by the Dutch, as were Tasmania and New Zealand, but the British laid down the map of these coasts after Dutch power had ceased to count.

The significance of these great acquisitions in the Pacific Ocean was not realized until after the middle of the nineteenth century, when gold was discovered in the west of North America, in Australia, and in New Zealand, and there was a rush of immigrants to found new colonies. In the west of North America the first gold found was in California, but other deposits were soon afterwards discovered northward in British Columbia. The colonies of Vancouver Island, and of British Columbia in the valley of the neighbouring Fraser River, were for many years the remotest parts of the British Empire, for they could be approached only by sailing ship round Cape Horn. If a box of matches were required in Vancouver Island it took a year to send the order home, and another year to send out the matches. Afterwards the time was shortened for mails and passengers by the construction of a road and presently of a railroad across the Isthmus of Panama. It must be remembered that it is little more than a hundred years ago since the first expedition crossed the American continent within the United States. Even sixty years ago there was no traffic from the

Mississippi to California except on horseback and in ox waggons at a cost of several months of monotonous travel.

In Australia the settlements grew so rapidly after the discovery of the goldfields that it was necessary to subdivide the vast island for purposes

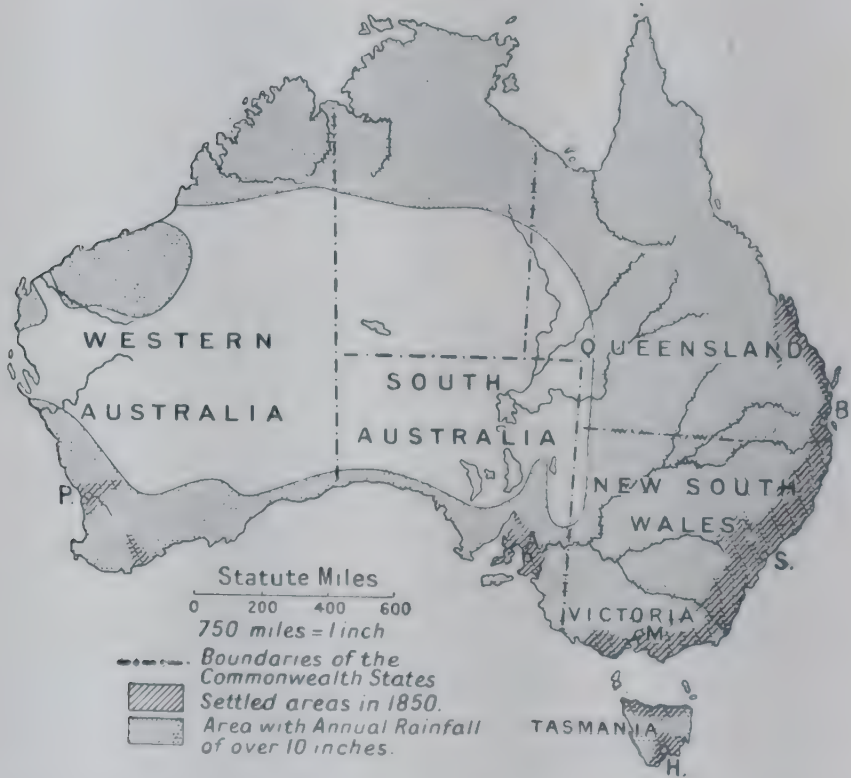


FIG. 95.—AUSTRALIA.

Most of the population was in 1850 gathered round the towns marked by their initial letters.

of government. The colonies stood far apart, separated by long stretches of uninhabited coast, and concentrated chiefly round three or four harbours and the goldfields behind them. Therefore both the northern and the southern districts of the

Colony of New South Wales, whose capital was at Sydney, were separated from it, the north being formed into the Colony of Queensland with its capital at Brisbane, and the south into the Colony of Victoria, with its capital at Melbourne.



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FIG. 96.—ON A SHEEP FARM IN AUSTRALIA.

Presently it was found that there were many thousands of square miles of pasture in the interior of Australia fitted for the support of sheep, and that the climate was such that the wool was of an excellent quality. Australian prosperity has increased in the last two generations, partly from the produce of the gold mines, and partly from the export

of the wool of millions of sheep. Melbourne and Sydney have become great cities, each with some six hundred thousand inhabitants. They are the markets and ports of the sheep runs and gold-fields of the interior.

Two other settlements were formed in Australia in the early days of Queen Victoria, the one at Adelaide in South Australia, the other at Perth in Western Australia. But the total population of Australia a generation ago numbered only some two millions. In Tasmania there were but a few thousand, for no gold was found there. New Zealand, on the other hand, became an important colony, for there both gold and wool were available as the bases of wealth. New Zealand differs from Tasmania and the colonies of the Australian continent in containing a fine race of natives, the Maoris, probably the noblest of all the savage races of the world. At first there were severe wars between the new settlers and the Maoris. But now there is peace, and the Maoris are becoming civilized, though at one time it appeared likely that the diseases of the white men would exterminate them. In Australia the natives are relatively few, and of a degraded type. They have been exterminated in Tasmania, where the story of their persecution by the earlier white settlers is not a pleasant one, notwithstanding their treachery and the danger which they constituted.

The only other considerable territory within the empire prior to the great annexations of the



FIG. 97.—A MAORI HOUSE.

present generation lay in South Africa. The Cape of Good Hope was ceded to us by the Dutch at the close of the Napoleonic war. The Cape Peninsula, with its roadsteads in Table Bay and Simon's Bay, was taken as a place of refreshment on the voyage to the East Indies. It became the most important of a chain of stations—from Sierra Leone, St. Helena, and Ascension in the western ocean to Mauritius in the eastern ocean. These were the stages of the voyage of the sailing East Indiaman whose journey out and home lasted about a year, and was undertaken in such way that the ship approached India on the South-West Monsoon, and came away on the North-East Monsoon.

In the immediate neighbourhood of Cape Town, the natives were few and of the Hottentot race, not of the more vigorous Kafir race, who formed the population farther eastward. A certain number of Dutch farmers had established themselves in the region, but with the advent of the British many of these removed farther inland. In order to secure our hold on the Colony, a British settlement was some years later formed at Port Elizabeth, eastward of the Cape, in the better watered Kafir country. The Dutch farmers again trekked, and crossed the Orange River northward. Some of them passed over the Drakensberg Mountains, and came down into the fertile coastal plain of Natal, but there they had been anticipated by



FIG. 98.—CUTTING FLAX IN NEW ZEALAND.

British settlers. Finally some of these dour peasants, in their disdain of civilized government and control, especially in the matter of their treatment of the natives, crossed the Vaal River into the land which has since been known as the Transvaal. Even there a generation later they were disturbed by the discovery of gold mines and the consequent inrush of a new and more energetic population of English speech.

As we survey the facts related in this chapter, it will be seen that there is only one circumstance which gives unity to the varied stories of these many colonies. That circumstance is the British supremacy on the ocean. By virtue of that supremacy, won at Trafalgar, we took over at the Peace of 1815 what had been French and Dutch possessions. By virtue of that same supremacy we afterwards annexed and settled almost where we would. For two generations there was no power to say "no" to us, either in the Indian, Pacific, or South Atlantic Oceans. That we did not annex most of the South American and African coasts, and most of the islands of the East, was due mainly to our reluctance to incur further responsibility of rule either among the barbaric peoples of the East, or the savage peoples of Africa, or the restless and revolutionary, although more or less civilized peoples of South America. Relatively small plantations sufficed to grow all the tropical produce then needed by the world, in addition to

what was raised in the Dutch colonies of Java and the Moluccas. Trading centres like Hong Kong and Singapore, and naval stations like Malta, Gibraltar, and Bermuda were the more defensible for being limited to small islands. We may in fact compare such stations to great anchored ships of the fleet.

Such was the British Empire down to the seventies of the last century. Our statesmen for the most part regarded the possession of colonies as a burden unavoidably incident to our ocean-wide commerce.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

as it stood in the last of the Sailing Days,
and before Electric Cables,
but after Trafalgar.

1. The United Kingdom—"Home."
2. Newfoundland and the Canadas, approached by the St. Lawrence.
3. The West India Plantations and the West African Trading Stations.
4. The Naval Stations at Bermuda, Halifax, Gibraltar, and Malta.
5. The East India Company's possessions, and Ceylon.
6. The Stations on the ocean road to India—Ascension, St. Helena the Cape, Mauritius, and the settlements at Port Elizabeth and Natal.
7. The new Trading Stations in the Far East—Singapore, Hong Kong, Shanghai.
8. Australia and New Zealand, reached by the round world voyage—out by Good Hope and home by the Horn.
9. Vancouver Island and British Columbia approached by the Falkland Islands and Cape Horn.

Part IV

THE WORLD

THE conditions established by the British victory at Trafalgar lasted for more than two generations. Of late, however, a vast change has come over the affairs of mankind. The means of communication have so increased that the world has become one. Europe no longer lives apart. Transcontinental railways and interoceanic canals are rendering great empires effective. The United States and Japan have become Great Powers. There is again a competition for primacy upon the ocean. Let us reconsider the chief nations of the world in the shapes in which they are being recast by modern science and engineering.

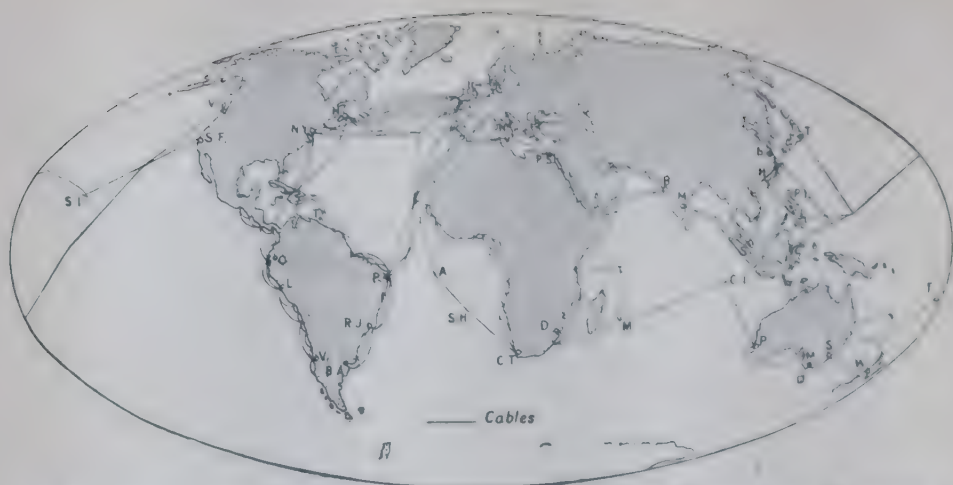


FIG. 99.—THE WORLD AS TIED TOGETHER BY ELECTRIC CABLES.

CHAPTER XIV. THE COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

A HUNDRED years ago, as we have seen in the last few chapters, all the relations of the British Empire were changed by two events. On the one hand, the defeat of France at Trafalgar left us an undisputed command of the ocean, and a great foreign and colonial commerce. On the other hand, the Industrial Revolution, by the application of steam power to the industries, made us above all things a manufacturing nation, needing markets beyond the ocean.

In the last few years—in our own time, that is to say—a second great change has been in progress, which we may describe as the Commercial Revolution. The import of it will be realized from the fact that whereas in 1870 not 10 per cent. of the world's shipping was moved by steam, in 1910 not 10 per cent. is moved by sails. In the Industrial Revolution *manufac-*

turing was cheapened and the output vastly increased. In the Commercial Revolution the *transport* of goods and passengers and the conveyance of ideas over the face of the world have become so rapid that the very Antipodes are brought almost to our doors. Moreover a bulk of merchandise is now being cheaply carried which in 1870 would not have been thought possible. The



1870

FIG. 100.

1911

FIG. 101.

The areas of the rectangles represent the proportion of shipping moved by sails and by steam in 1870 and to-day.

advent of the new era of quick and easy communication may be placed between the years 1878 and 1882, when the great fall in the price of British agricultural produce took place, owing to the development of American railways and Atlantic shipping, which brought to us the produce of the virgin soil of the prairies. Let us consider the steps by which this great change was effected.

Away back in ancient times there were fine roads

for the traffic of chariots throughout the Roman Empire, but when the Roman administration broke down and the barbarians invaded the empire these roads fell into decay. Through the Middle Ages men travelled on horseback over unpaved tracks, and by ship and boat coastwise and riverwise. It was not until the eighteenth century, when the population of Europe was growing rapidly as a consequence of the improvement of agriculture and of the increase of manufactures, that roads were again constructed beyond the immediate neighbourhood of the greater cities. Only in France do the trunk roads date from a somewhat earlier time, having been made for military purposes in the days of Louis XIV. The armies of Napoleon I. had magnificent roads over which to march even in Germany, whereas those of Frederick the Great only half a century earlier had to advance across country. Several of the finest roads over the Alps were made by Napoleon's engineers.

So it happened that even in those parts of Britain where there was a relatively dense population a rapid system of horse-drawn coaches was not developed until about a hundred years ago. As late as the beginning of the nineteenth century only two or three coaches crossed the Scottish Border each way in the twenty-four hours.

The new roads were, however, not adapted for the transport of heavy merchandise, and for this purpose canals were introduced, and rivers were canalized. France and Germany each possessed a

canal at a relatively early date. In the seventeenth century the French made one from Bordeaux and Toulouse through the depression known as the Gate of Carcassonne to the Mediterranean. In the same century the Germans constructed one from the River Oder through Berlin to the River Elbe. In

Britain, however, canals were not made until the Industrial Revolution necessitated the transport of food and fuel to the new towns. Two Scottish canals were built about the same



FIG. 102.—THE ERIE CANAL.

time to connect sea with sea across the island, the one from the Forth to the Clyde, the other through Glenmore from the Firth of Lorn to Moray Firth.

Of all the canals made in the time before railways the most important was the Erie Canal in the United States. It connects the head of the navigation of the tidal Hudson River with the eastern end of Lake Erie above the Niagara Falls.

The Erie Canal was completed in the year 1825, and a lakeway more than a thousand miles long from Chicago to Buffalo was thus connected with the sea. New York, at the mouth of the Hudson, quickly increased in commerce and population,



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FIG. 103.—ONE OF THE FIRST STEAMSHIPS.

The *James Watt*, launched in 1821. Length 142 ft., breadth 25 ft.
420 tons; 100 horse power.

for the wheat of the interior was brought down by the new canal and distributed coastwise northward to New England, and southward to Virginia and the Carolinas. In exchange the manufactured articles of New England and of

Europe, and the tobacco of Virginia was sent westward by the new waterway to the interior. A hundred years ago New York was a smaller place than either Boston or Philadelphia, but soon after the opening of the Erie Canal it surpassed both of these cities.

It was in 1788 that the first model of a steam-



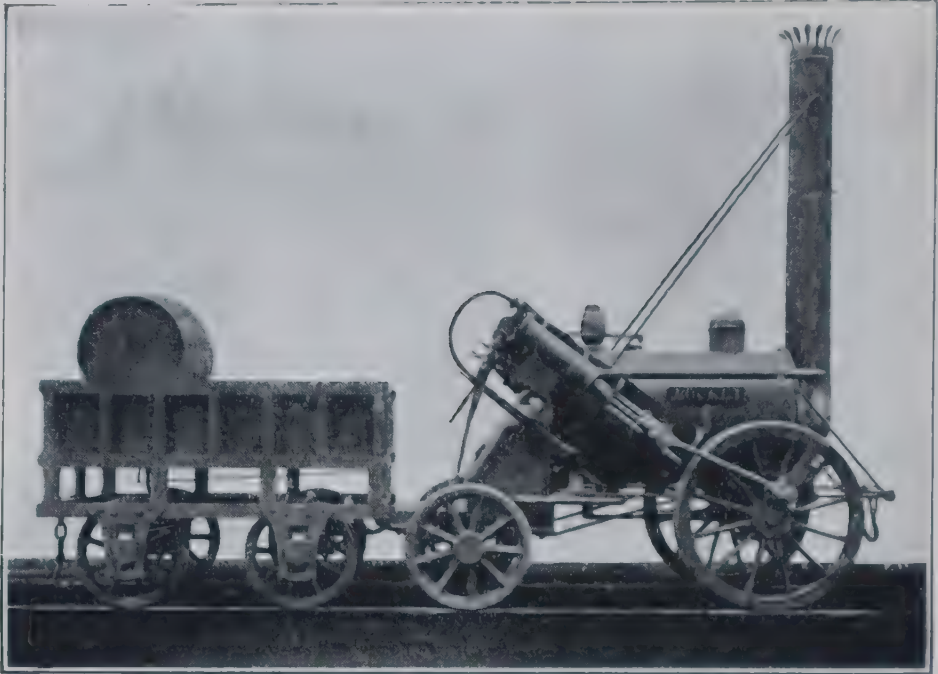
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FIG. 104.—THE MAURETANIA.

Length 790 ft., breadth 88 ft. 32,000 tons ; 68,000 horse power. Launched in 1908.

driven vessel was tried in a little lake in the Scottish county of Dumfries. In 1807 there was a steamer on the Hudson River in America, and in 1811 on the Clyde in Britain. A steamship first crossed the Atlantic in 1819, but for nearly two generations sailing ships continued to be employed for bulky cargoes, and for the more



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FIG. 105.—THE ROCKET.

One of the earliest locomotives. Built by George Stephenson.

distant voyages round the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn.

The first overland route to India was by steamer to Egypt, and by camel to Suez, and by steamer again through the Red Sea. The steam packets, as they were then called, were moved by paddle wheels, for the screw had not been invented.

The first great railway which was opened for public traffic was from Manchester to Liverpool. It was completed in the year 1830. Other lines were presently laid down to connect the principal towns in Britain, on the Continent of Europe, and in the eastern part of the United States. As late, however, as 1864 there was no tunnel through the

Alps, nor any railway from ocean to ocean in North America.

In 1840 the first telegraph lines were set up on the land, and were presently utilized for signalling purposes on the railways and for the conveyance of public messages, but a telegram arriving in a household was for many years regarded with terror, since no one would incur the high cost of sending it except for very urgent reason. Even the inland penny post was not introduced until 1840. Prior to that time letters were charged according to distance. A letter from London to Edinburgh, provided that it was written on not more than one sheet of paper, was charged a shilling.

Thus we see that even the beginnings of rapid transport did not come until the Industrial Revolution had made great way. Manchester and Liverpool were already large cities when they were first connected by railway in 1830. It was not for



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FIG. 106.—GEORGE THE FIFTH. THE LATEST TYPE OF PASSENGER LOCOMOTIVE ENGINE ON THE L.N.W.R

many years that the new methods of communication came to be applied on a vast scale, so as to knit the whole world together and to alter the conditions of national life. Perhaps we may mark this change as beginning in the year 1865 when the first electric cable was laid across the Atlantic. Thenceforth there was instantaneous communication of ideas between Europe and America. In the following year we have the completion of the first railway from Atlantic to Pacific through the United States. In 1869 came the opening of the Suez Canal, and of direct steam traffic to India. In 1870, in the midst of the Franco-German war, the French and Italian engineers met under the Alps in the Mt. Cenis Tunnel, eight miles long, and in 1871 the British mails for India were first sent overland by rail from Calais through the new tunnel to Brindisi. In 1872 the British iron mills were hard at work making rails for the construction of thousands of miles of new line in the United States. Great advances were about the same time made in steam-ship building. The screw was substituted for the paddle wheel in ocean-going vessels. The hulls were constructed of iron instead of wood, and then of steel instead of iron. Thus a great saving of space was effected for the carriage of cargo. New types of engines were introduced, triple and quadruple expansion engines, and lately turbine engines, which effected a further economy of space and a further development of driving power.

Thus it happened that between the years 1878 and 1882 the railways and the steamers were available to pour wheat into Britain from the virgin soil of America at a price so cheap that British agriculture was brought to the verge of ruin. The value of British agricultural land fell



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[Grand Trunk Railway System.

FIG. 107.—A RAILROAD IN THE CANADIAN PRAIRIE, THE MODERN PIONEER OF SETTLEMENT.

The tall blocks on either side of the line are "elevators," or store-houses for grain.

by hundreds of millions sterling. The age of steel and electricity had commenced, which was to make the world one.

Lines of steamers now traverse all the oceans, even to distant Australia and New Zealand. Bulky cargoes of wheat, and iron ore, and timber, and petroleum, and coal are carried over the sea,

so that imports and exports have risen by many millions of tons. Britain now sends her coal abroad, and the countries of Europe, having ended their fighting, are using it to increase their industries. On the other hand British iron ore has run short and Spanish ore is brought in. Cables have been laid down in all directions over the ocean bottom, so that men now note each

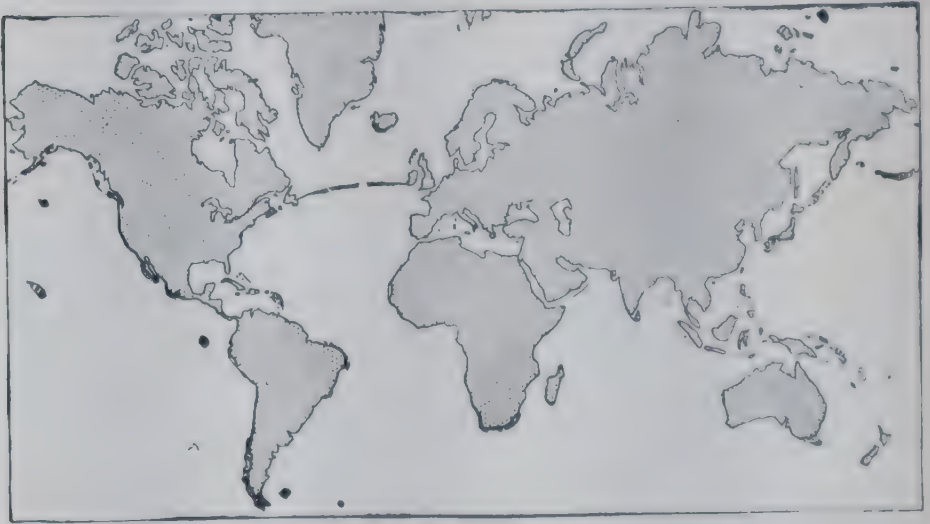


FIG. 108.—THE FIRST SUBMARINE CABLE.
Laid in 1865.

morning what occurs in all parts of the globe, instead of waiting several weeks, as our forefathers did to learn the news of the Indian Mutiny.

Education was made compulsory in England in 1870, although it had been general at an earlier date in Scotland and Prussia. A new generation has grown up which can read. The steam engine has been applied on a greater scale to printing, and newspapers which cost threepence

and fourpence a copy at the time of the Crimea, and sold to the extent of some thirty thousand a day, are now sold for a penny and for a halfpenny and by the million a day.

Two results follow on the publication of cabled world-wide news in millions of newspapers every morning. On the one hand, if we allow for the cost of transport from point to point there is but



FIG. 109.—THE SUBMARINE CABLES OF THE PRESENT DAY.

a single price over the whole world for commodities, such as wheat, in general and large use. On the other hand, whereas critical events were formerly past and over before the majority of the people of the world had heard of them, now every phase of a quarrel between nations is followed by millions, and there is danger of the sudden rise of popular passions.

Two more results of the vast powers with

which mankind has been equipped in the last thirty or forty years must be observed, and then we shall have some measure of the newness of the world in which we are living. Until a few years ago most railways were constructed to connect cities which were already important. Now the steel road is driven out into the vacant wastes of North and South America, of Africa, of Central Asia, and of Australia. The railway engineer is a pioneer, and the settlement of farmers and the growth of towns follow after him. As a consequence, geographical discovery was hardly complete in Africa and Asia before settlement and occupation began in what had hitherto been closed continents. Western civilization, which until thirty years ago was confined to Europe and a part of America, is now spreading with marvellous rapidity into every part of the globe and to every race.

In the second place vessels of war are now driven with speed and certainty over thousands of miles without need of re-coaling. They fire weapons of long range with the utmost precision, and communicate with one another and with the shore through hundreds of miles by wireless telegraphy. There is now a degree of certainty in the operations of war upon the sea which is wholly different from the chanceful conditions under which Nelson fought a hundred years ago. Human courage and knowledge count for more as compared with the chances of accident. Aeroplanes and sub-

marines have but increased the scope for skill and accuracy, so that in the future, though the call for courage will be greater than formerly, yet it will be useless unless educated.

One fortunate result of the modern unity of the world, and of the fact that the damage done by war is no longer local, is that diplomacy is active for the avoidance of wars, which have become rarer and shorter than they used to be. It must not be forgotten, however, that the diplomats in their negotiations carefully bear in mind the relative strength and preparedness of the contending nations.



FIG. 110.—A SUBMARINE CABLE.

CHAPTER XV. AMERICA

LET us now briefly survey the world under the new conditions of to-day, bearing in mind what we have learned of physical geography in the last book, and of history in this book. Let us describe first those parts of the world which lie outside the British Empire, in order that afterwards we may the better understand that empire itself. We will

begin with the United States of America.

At the time of the separation from Britain there were perhaps two million people in the thirteen States ranged along the Atlantic coast. The federal capital was



FIG. 111.—THE WESTWARD TREND OF POPULATION IN THE U.S.A.

The stars mark the centres of population in the successive census years.

established at Washington about midway from north to south, and was placed in the little district of Columbia detached from the State of Maryland. Boston and Philadelphia were at first the largest towns. Then, as we saw in the last chapter, a change was effected by the construction of the Erie Canal from the Great

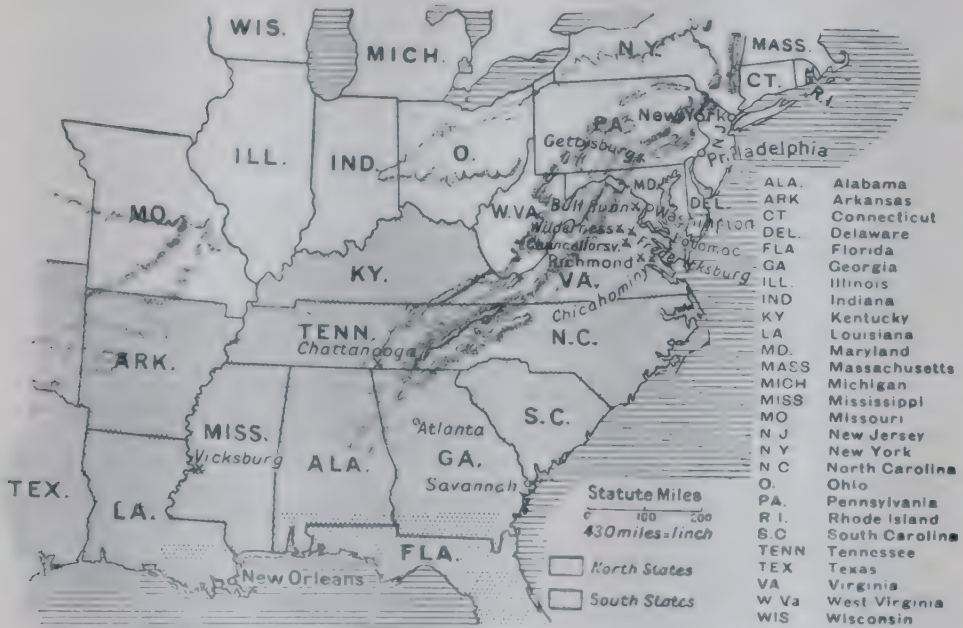


FIG. 112. THE NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN STATES IN 1861.

The Civil War between North and South lasted from 1861 to 1865 and cost a million lives.

Lakes to the Hudson River. The Middle West was opened up and sown with wheat which fed the commerce of New York at the mouth of the Hudson. As a consequence of this development the Northern States became the more enterprising and populous. The Southern States, it is true, sent emigrants westward over the Alle-

ghany mountains into the basin of the Mississippi, but the manual labour of the southern fields was done by negro slaves, and the crops produced were tobacco, cotton, sugar, and rice. There was little or no manufacture in the South, whereas coal-



FIG. 113.

The areas of the circles represent the populations of the United Kingdom and of the United States respectively a hundred years ago and at the present day.

fields were worked in the North and industrial towns grew up there. So it happened that the interests and the ideas of the Northerners and Southerners came to differ. The North hated negro slavery, whereas the white masters of the South lived by it. The Northerners wished to ex-

clude as far as possible foreign manufactured articles, and to retain the home markets for themselves, whereas the Southerners wished to admit foreign manufactures as cheaply as possible.



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FIG. 114.—HIGH-WATER MARK, GETTYSBURG.

The Southerners had much success in the early years of the war. The battle of Gettysburg marked the turning point of the campaign. This monument records how far the Southerners came.

Many new states were gradually added to the original thirteen both in the North and the South, and the United States spread halfway across the continent by the middle of the nineteenth century. The boundary of the Union after the year 1803 extended to the Pacific, but in the middle of the century most of the west was still counted as

vacant territory, and had not been divided into new states.

At last in 1861 the contest between North and South became so violent that the Southern States decided to separate from the Northern and to form a new federation. Rather than allow this the North determined to fight. So commenced



FIG. 115 — PLAN OF NEW YORK.

Greater New York is now the second largest city in the world.

the most terrible civil war in history. It lasted for four years, and resulted in the utter defeat of the South. A million men lost their lives in the struggle. Curiously the Southern capital at Richmond in Virginia was only a hundred miles from Washington, the

Northern capital on the Potomac, yet the war raged over all the South through a space measuring a thousand miles in each direction. Lancashire in Britain suffered terribly because the supply of raw Southern cotton for the mills was cut off.

At the conclusion of the war slavery was abolished in the United States. Immediately afterwards the first transcontinental railway was completed to the goldfields of California and to

San Francisco on the Pacific coast. In the years that followed a vast extension of the American railways took place, so that now there are some two hundred thousand miles of railway in the United States as compared with twenty thousand miles in the United Kingdom. There has been a great immigration from Europe to occupy the fertile virgin soil thus made accessible. Of late most of the people entering have been derived not from Britain and not from



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FIG. 116.—THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

Germany, whence they were formerly drawn, but chiefly from the lands of eastern and southern Europe. For several years a million fresh people have landed in the United States annually. Including some ten million emancipated negroes the United States have now a population of about ninety millions. The original thirteen states have grown to be forty-eight.

The largest cities are New York, the chief port on the Atlantic coast, and Chicago at the head of Lake Michigan, where the railways from the north-west converge like the ribs of a great fan to pass round the end of the lake. It is useful



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FIG. 117.—THE FIRST LANDING-PLACE OF THE
DUTCH IN AMERICA AS IT IS TO-DAY.

to remember when looking at the map that Lake Michigan measures some three hundred miles in length from north to south, or the distance from Newcastle-on-Tyne to London.

The resources of

the United States are ceasing to be mainly agricultural. More coal is mined than in any other country, and the industries are on so vast a scale that after supplying the home markets America has to spare for export. Within the last thirty years she has become one of the three great industrial nations of the world. To-day she makes more than twenty million tons of steel

a year. Germany makes eleven million tons, and Britain six million tons.

For the greater part of the past century the United States refused to intervene in the affairs of other nations. Her foreign policy was limited to what is known as the Monroe Doctrine. That doctrine, enunciated by President Monroe in 1820, is to the effect that the United States will allow no European country to acquire fresh



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FIG. 118.—“FLAT IRON BUILDING,” ONE OF THE “SKYSCRAPERS” OF NEW YORK.

territory in the New World. In the British Empire, to the north of the United States, there is an area nominally under European sovereignty which is a little larger than that of the States themselves. But in all the region south to Cape Horn the European



FIG. 119.—THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

The Congress or Legislature of the U.S.A. meets in this building.

nations now hold only a few colonies in the West Indies, and in Honduras and Guiana. When Napoleon conquered Spain and Portugal the vast Spanish and Portuguese possessions in South America made themselves independent. On the Spanish side of the continent were established the Republic of Mexico and the little Republics of Central America, and then in long succession, ranged beside the Andes, the republics of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, and Argentina. Brazil was separated from Portugal when the Portuguese royal family took refuge at Rio de Janeiro from the French troops at Lisbon. It was ruled by an emperor of the old line until some twenty years ago, when the Emperor was dethroned and Brazil became a

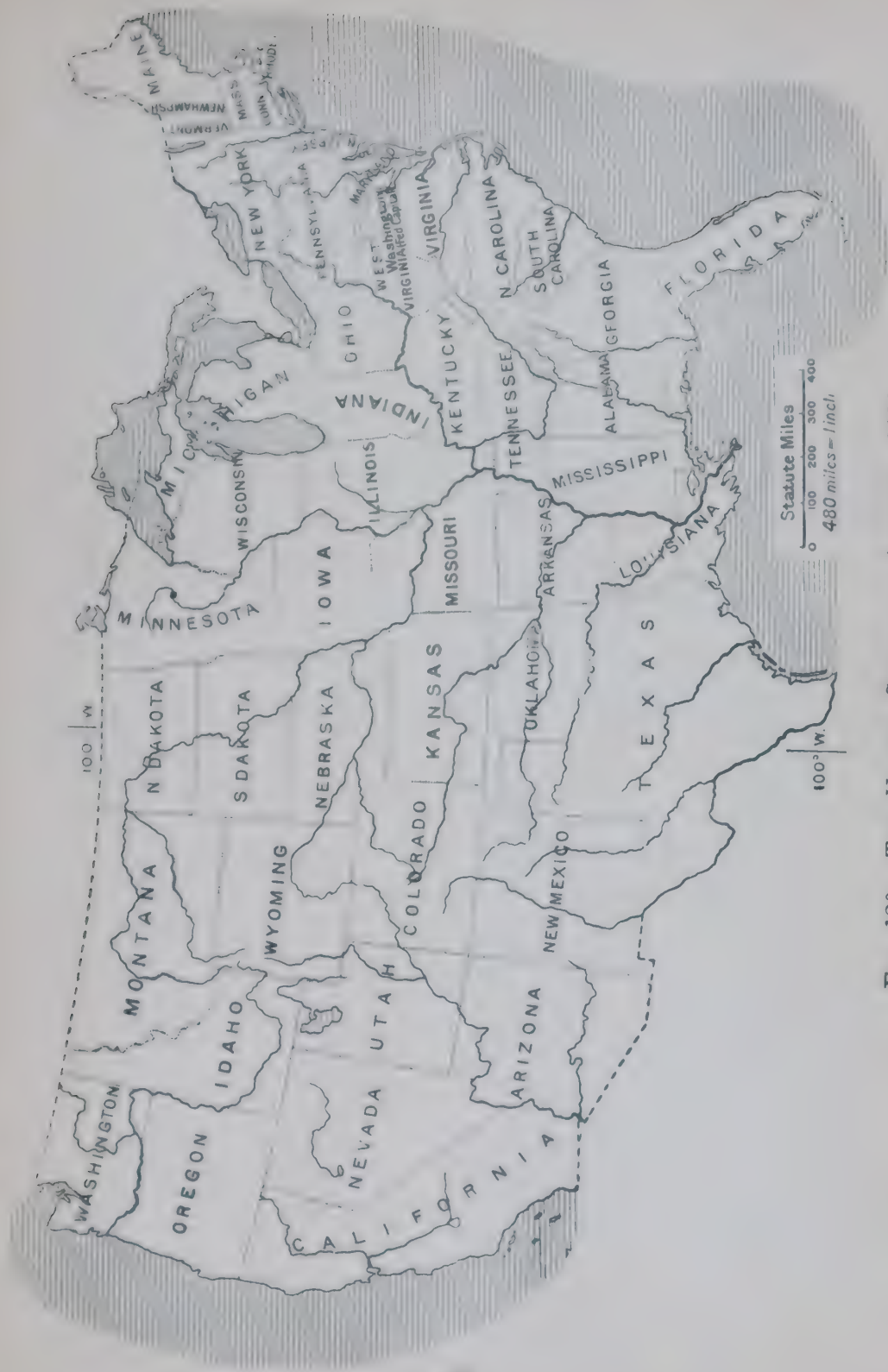


FIG. 120.—THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, 1910.

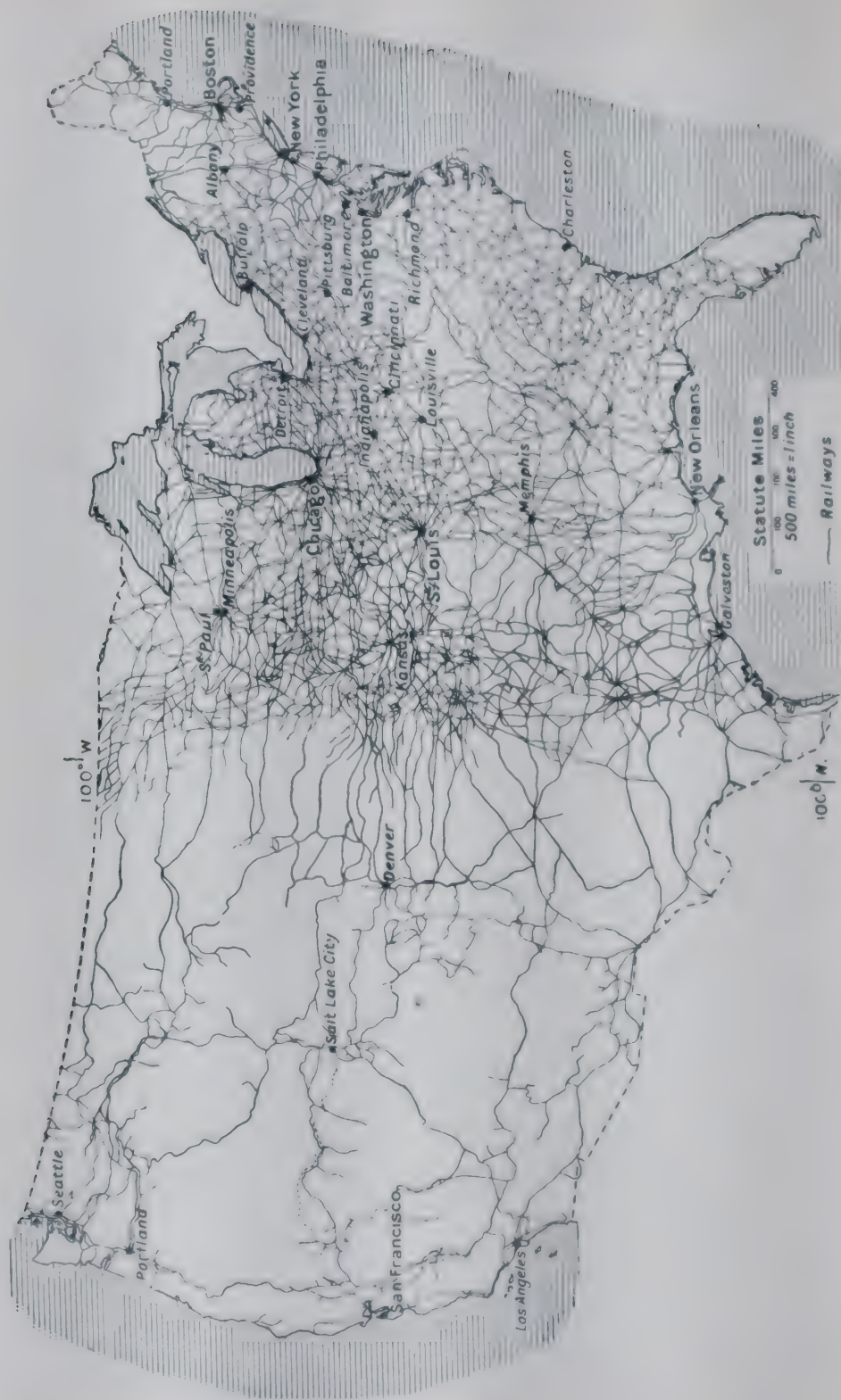


FIG. 121 —RAILWAYS OF U.S.A.

Note that the railways are most numerous east of the meridian 100° W. of Greenwich.

federal Republic on the model of the United States.

By virtue of the Monroe Doctrine the United States exercises a mild kind of empire in the whole of America outside Canada. Until recent years, however, she had but a small fleet on the ocean, and had she been challenged by a strong fleet the Monroe Doctrine could not have been



FIG. 122.—COALFIELDS OF THE U.S.A.

Note that the coalfields lie east of the meridian 100° W. of Greenwich.

made good. Through most of the nineteenth century, it so happened that there was no fleet but the British fleet which was in a position to challenge America, and Britain had no desire for war upon the Canadian frontier. Britain and the United States happily checked one another, the one by superiority on the ocean and the other by superiority in North America.



FIG. 123.—THE EMPIRE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Having fought her Civil War, however, and having completed the first occupation of her territory from the Atlantic shore to the Pacific, the United States emerged from her isolation and

began to take part in the general affairs of the world. The first indication of the change was when she declared war on Spain in 1898, on account of the disorder prevailing in the island of Cuba, which was



FIG. 124.—THE EMPIRE OF THE UNITED STATES.

a Spanish colony. The American fleet defeated the Spanish fleet both in the Atlantic and the Pacific, and stripped Spain of all her overseas possessions, except the Canary Islands off the coast of Africa, the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean, and a few small territories in Africa. The United States took the rich islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, and also the Archipelago of the Philippines

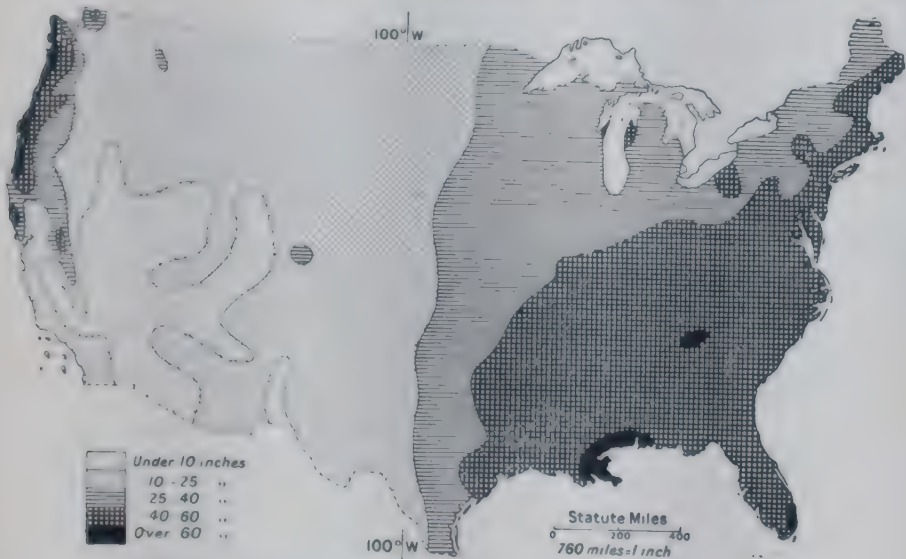


FIG. 125.—U.S.A. RAINFALL.

Note that most of the rain falls east of the meridian 100° W. of Greenwich.

in the Far East. Cuba has since been established as a separate republic under the protection of the United States. Some few years before the Spanish War, America annexed the Sandwich Islands or Hawaii. Still earlier she bought from Russia the territory of Alaska, but until gold was recently discovered on the Canadian frontier towards Alaska, she did not much trouble about

this sub-Arctic territory. For the first time, therefore, the United States now finds herself in the possession of colonies which are separated from her main territory by the sea, and she must be prepared to keep open the way to them. She has thus come under the necessity of maintaining a

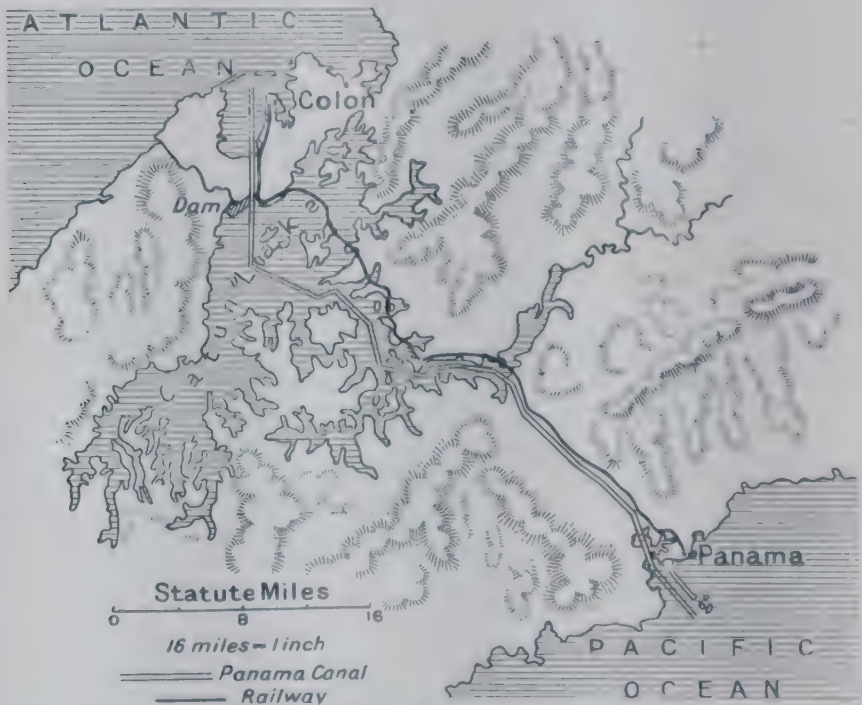


FIG. 126.—THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA.

Note the dam which holds up the water of the Chagres river, converting its valley into the Gatun lake.

considerable fleet, which is already the third strongest in the world.

During the war with Spain one of the American battleships in the Pacific was wanted in West Indian seas, and had to make the long voyage round the south of South America. That fact decided the American Government to construct a ship canal



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FIG. 127.—AT WORK ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

The view is in the cutting between the Gatun Lake and Panama town.

across the Isthmus of Panama, a canal which had been projected and partly made by the French, inspired by De Lesseps the builder of the Suez Canal. The French abandoned the task on account of the vast cost. At all costs, however, the United States have now determined that there shall be a Panama Canal, and that the American Government shall build it. The Americans have occupied and policed the Isthmus, so that Panama is now for all practical purposes a possession of the United States, although administered by a nominally independent republic. When the canal has been completed the American fleet will be able

to transfer itself with ease from Atlantic to Pacific waters. The canal will of course be open to the commerce of all nations, although it will probably



FIG. 128.—SOUTH AMERICA.

be held by American forts. It will shorten more especially the voyage from New York to the ports of the west coast of South America.

There can be no doubt that to-day the United

States would fight on the ocean with any nation that attempted to infringe the Monroe Doctrine, but at the same time it should be noted that the South American nations of Spanish and Portuguese speech are growing in regard to their own wealth and strength, especially Brazil with its great capital city of Riode Janeiro, and Argentina with its still greater capital of Buenos Ayres, and Chile with its twin cities, capital and port, Santiago and Valparaiso. The wide prairies of Argentina are to-day occupied with crops of wheat and herds of cattle. Many thousand miles of railway have been constructed over the Argentine plains largely with British capital. Much British money has also been invested in Brazil, where coffee is the chief crop of the highlands of the south near Santos and São Paulo. Sugar is grown in the north round Pernambuco and Bahia. Indiarubber is the chief product of the forests of the Amazon basin, whose great river is navigable for sea-going vessels for a thousand miles inland to the port of Manaos. Even the Northern Republics, such as Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador, are less afflicted with disorders of government than a few years ago. A new era in South American affairs is marked by the fact that in the year 1910 the Andes were pierced for the first time by a tunnel connecting the railways of Argentina and Chile. Thus the independence of the greater South American states is not likely to rest for long merely on the maintenance of the Monroe doctrine.

One point of much interest in respect of the United States may be learned from the maps in this chapter. On four of them the hundredth meridian West of Greenwich has been indicated. The rainfall and the deposits of coal lie mainly east of this meridian. As shown by the railway map the chief activity of the nation is as a consequence also east of this line. The first map of the chapter makes it clear that the centre of population is now gradually ceasing to move westward, for pioneering settlement has come up to the western limit of adequate rainfall, and the era of closer settlement has set in. Irrigation from mountain streams may fertilise perhaps a twentieth of the desert West, and along the Pacific shore there is a strip of adequately watered coast land, but the main strength of the United States must always lie in the Eastern half of its vast territory. As shown, however, in another of our maps, the American colonial Empire is developing in the Pacific and in the Far Eastern seas of Asia. Hence the need and extraordinary significance of the construction of the Panama Canal. The control of Cuba is important chiefly as commanding the approaches to the Canal.

CHAPTER XVI. RUSSIA

THE same century which saw the growth of the United States witnessed a vast change also in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Little more than a hundred years ago Russia did not extend to the Black Sea, but was limited to the basin of the Upper Volga and the region south of the Baltic. The capital of the country had been Moscow, until the Czar Peter the Great, who was contemporary with our Queen Anne, removed it to St. Petersburg, in



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FIG. 129.—NEVSKY PROSPECT, ST. PETERSBURG.

order to have communication by ship with the western more civilized nations.

At the time of the French Revolution and the



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FIG. 130.—PETER THE GREAT, THE FOUNDER OF ST. PETERSBURG.

Napoleonic war, the territory of Russia in Europe was enlarged in three different directions. It was pushed north-westward, as we have learned, to include Finland, and westward far into Poland, although in

both cases a certain degree of autonomy was reserved for the new provinces. Two generations later, in 1863, Poland rebelled and was reduced to the condition of an ordinary territory of the Czardom. It was southward, however, that at the end of the eighteenth century the greatest change was effected. In that direction the Russians emerged from their forest land, whose southern boundary extended from the Carpathians

to the Ural Mountains. Their agricultural lands had hitherto been cleared from the forest. They now came out on to the broad grassy Steppes north of the Black Sea, whence their Cossacks had driven the Tartars, as we read in the third book of this series. In the time of the French Revolution they fought with the Turks in the territory beyond the Steppes that was known as Crim Tartary. Odessa was taken as well as the Crimea, and a vast economic change set in. Where formerly the nomadic hordes had ridden, the Russian farmers now settled, and replaced the grass with crops of wheat, so that Odessa grew to be a great port. There are to-day as many inhabitants of the Steppes as of the older Russia of the northern forest.

The essential character, however, of Russian society was not yet changed. The peasants were still serfs living in village communities, and there were very few considerable cities in all the vast plain. There were no roads, and as late as the Crimean War it is said that for every soldier who was put into the lines of Sevastopol, nine died on the way across the wintry plain. It was not until after this war that the serfs were emancipated.

The most wonderful change has now been effected in Russia by the construction of railways, made as easily over the plains of Eastern Europe and Western Siberia as over the North American prairies and the pampas of Argentina. The



FIG. 131.—EUROPEAN RUSSIA IN ITS ORIGINAL CONDITION.

change has been the more sudden because the lines have been constructed through a roadless land. Within less than a lifetime Russia has passed from conditions of travel almost mediæval in their difficulty to the utmost modern facil-

ity of communication. Moreover the railways have been continued for thousands of miles through Asia to the Far Eastern and Southern borders of the Empire. In one direction runs the Central Asian line through the deserts of Turkestan to the frontier of Afghanistan within four hundred miles of India. In another direction runs the Trans-Siberian line across the great rivers of Western Siberia, round the southern end of Lake Baikal, over the plateau of Eastern Siberia, down into the plains of Manchuria, and so to the Pacific coast

at Vladivostok. In its western half the Trans-Siberian Railway crosses vast open Steppes, similar to the prairies of North America, and as capable of rich cultivation of wheat. The Central Asian railway on the other hand has made avail-

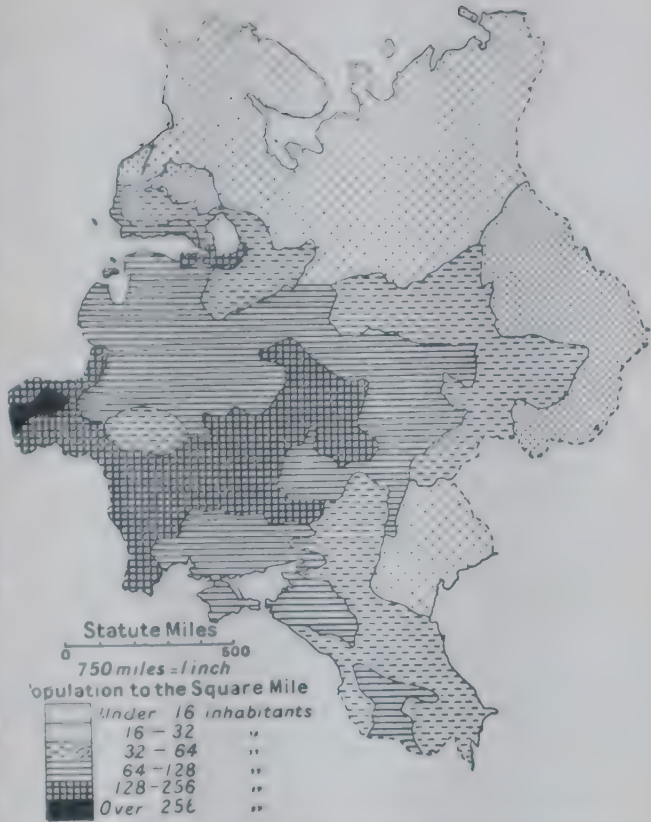


FIG. 132.—EUROPEAN RUSSIA—PRESENT DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION.

able for the industries of Moscow and its neighbourhood the supplies of raw cotton grown in the oases of Khiva and Bokhara. There is coal under the Russian plain south of Moscow, and also in Poland. Gold and other metals are in the Ural Mountains and in the Altai Mountains of Asia. Petroleum in almost unlimited quantity occurs beyond the Caucasus Range at Baku, on the shores of the Caspian Sea. There are vast forests for the supply of timber in the north both of Asia and Europe. Thus Russia contains within her own



FIG. 133.—RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

empire all the resources and raw materials for industrial progress. Her fertile territory is more than twice as large as that of the United States. The total population of her empire numbers a hundred and fifty millions, and of these more than a hundred millions are Russians. Most of

the Russians proper live in a compact area, bounded northward by a line drawn from St. Petersburg along the Upper Volga, and eastward by the Middle Volga and the Lower Don. If the Russians as a people were as well edu-

cated as are the Germans and the Americans they would count as one of the greatest forces of the world. But two generations must probably elapse before this necessary reform can be accomplished, and in the meantime many things may happen elsewhere.



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FIG. 134.—A TRAIN ON THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

The great difficulty of Russia is that she is a giant imprisoned, not merely by ignorance but also in a geographical sense. She has no access to open warm waters. Except along the Arctic coast her shores are washed only by land-locked seas, such as the Baltic and the Black Sea in Europe, and the Sea of Okhotsk and the Sea of Japan in Asia, and in the winter all of these waters are frozen for many miles from the coast. None the less when the Russian Empire has been sufficiently covered with the network of railways, her vast natural resources and her great army must ensure consideration for her as one of the four or five greatest powers in the world. Ultimately it is likely that the Russian language and literature will rank with English, French, German, Italian, Spanish, Hindustani, and Chinese, as one of the master tongues of mankind. The languages spoken by fewer millions may not improbably die.

CHAPTER XVII. THE FAR EAST

IN the Far East, on the shores of the Pacific Ocean, is the compact land of China, inhabited by four hundred million peaceable people, of ancient and in some respects high civilization. They are creatures of custom, mild because of their Confucian philosophy, which counsels resignation and acceptance of fate, but not fundamentally unmanly, and capable of ferocity when roused, yet usually obedient to the authorities that be, and not prone to revolution. They look down on the profession of the soldier. In the recent past they have hated and despised foreigners. They so condemn the forcible methods of the West that until lately they have refused to prepare adequate national defences, and were powerless to prevent foreign nations from establishing settlements along their coasts. More than once European armies have marched to their capital Peking, and there dictated terms for the advantage of the Western merchants, who thus came to enjoy privileges in certain of their ports which are known as the Treaty Ports. On the other hand the Chinese so reverence learning and tradition that they allow themselves to be ruled by philosophers whom they select by



FIG. 135.—THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

China Proper, or the Middle Land, so called by the Chinese because situated in the heart of the Far Eastern World, consists of eighteen provinces, which here are named. Parts of the Japanese Empire are shown in black, with railways in white.

competition in written examinations. Their merchants are honest. Their workers are industrious. Their Government in its eighteen provinces, each as large as a European kingdom, rules over more people than any other Government in the world save that of the British Empire. Whenever this great people decides to take full advantage of the Western resources of industry, communication, and defence, it is inevitable that after one or two generations China will count among the five or six Great Powers of the world. At this very moment it seems that the change has begun.

We learned a few chapters back that the British force which saved our position in India at the time of the Mutiny had been destined for a war in China. Several easy defeats were inflicted on China by the British, and in later times by other European nations, but the Chinese Government continued to despise the foreigner, and the Chinese people continued to hate him. It required defeat at the hands of another oriental nation to make the necessary impression on the "Celestial" mind. In 1896 the Japanese attacked and defeated the Chinese. That an oriental nation, and one which they had hitherto deemed barbaric, should thus attack and defeat them was indeed a new fact.

The Japanese in their islands of the Far East, under their flag of the Rising Sun, are in reality a very different people from the Chinese. It is true that they obtained their civilization chiefly



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FIG. 136.—OLD JAPAN.

from China, but from of old they were a warlike race. Their ruling class, known as the Samurai, were a feudal nobility, who fought with one another and despised commerce, which they left to the lower grades of the people. The Samurai had traditions and qualities akin to what we describe in Europe as knightly, chivalrous, and gallant. The Japanese merchants, however, were not characterized by the probity of the Chinese.

When first the ocean road to the East was discovered, the Japanese welcomed the Europeans.

and it seemed at one time that they might become Christian. Later, however, a quarrel took place and foreigners were excluded from Japan, so that the West was shut out even more rigorously than from China.

More than two hundred years afterwards, in the middle of the nineteenth century, the British attacked Japan, and by treaty forced upon her the opening of certain ports, which were known as



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FIG. 137.—MODERN JAPAN.

A Street in Yokohama decorated to celebrate the peace after the War with Russia.

Treaty Ports as in the case of China. A few Japanese youths of high birth then came to Europe, and here in Britain learned the secrets of Western civilization, and returned to their own civilized and highly artistic people. Convinced now that the only way to meet the West was with Western weapons, the Samurai effected in Japan one of the most extraordinary revolutions known to history. They dissolved their own order and abandoned their noble privileges that they might diffuse their high qualities among the mass of the people. They succeeded in arousing a new patriotism in Japan, and in a single generation the whole trend of Japanese history was changed. In two generations Japan has been raised to the position of one of the Great Powers of the world.

At first Europe did not realize what was happening. Forty million people were educating and arming themselves. They were building a fleet after the British model, and equipping an army after the German model. They were organizing a more or less free Government, partly after the British, but mainly after the German model, with Ministers responsible to the sovereign, the Mikado, and not to the representatives of the people. They chose this form of polity in order to have greater strength and more decided action in the wars which they saw to be inevitable.

Then, as we have said, in the year 1896, the Japanese attacked the Chinese, with the object of taking Korea, a peninsula hitherto feudatory

to China. The Chinese Government, foreseeing too late what was to happen, had equipped an ineffective fleet and built a small dockyard at Port Arthur, at the end of the promontory known as the Regent's Sword. Japan took Port Arthur,



FIG. 138.—PORT ARTHUR.

Off the Tsushima Islands the Russian Fleet, on its way from Europe to Vladivostok, suffered utter defeat at the hands of the Japanese.

but three European powers, France, Germany, and Russia, demanded that she should vacate it. Yielding to major force she complied, but the whole Japanese nation vowed to be revenged of the insult.

The Russians were then constructing the Trans-Siberian railway, and wished for a terminal

port free from the winter ice which encumbers Vladivostok. They therefore advanced southward and took Port Arthur for themselves. The



FIG. 139.—THE JAPANESE EMPIRE.

Germans had established themselves at Kiauchau on the coast of China just south of the Shantung Promontory. Britain could not allow all northern China to fall in foreign hands, for China is one of the chief markets for Lancashire cotton goods. Our Government therefore took the harbour of Wei-Hai-Wei, on the north side of the Promontory of Shantung, opposite to Port Arthur, and we allied ourselves with Japan. For ten years the Japanese prepared, and then when the Trans-Siberian railway had just been completed, but before Russia could establish her full strength in Manchuria, the Japanese declared war upon her, and defeated her both on land and sea.

It was a very great achievement for a nation numbering only forty-seven million people, just emerging from oriental impotence, to defeat Russia. We must not forget, however, that the Russian army was fighting at the end of six thousand miles of single-line railway, and that the Russian fleet which made the long voyage from the Baltic, through the Suez Canal, to the Far East, had no Russian ports and coaling stations by the way in which to refit. Even the Black Sea was denied to her by the treaties which forbade the passage of ships of war through the Bosphorus.

As the result of their two wars, against China and against Russia, the Japanese have annexed all the islands from the peninsula of Kamchatka in the north to Formosa in the south, and they are now, therefore, neighbours of the Americans

in the Philippine Islands. They have annexed also the great peninsula of Korea on the mainland. They have strengthened their fleet since peace was made, and are probably the fifth naval power in the world. They are building up their industries, so that they compete with the British, the Germans, the Americans, and the French in the markets of China and even of India.



FIG. 140.—THE GREAT CITIES OF THE EAST.

Cities marked thus Peking ■ have a population of at least half a million, and some of them of more than a million.

By Treaties made in 1905 and 1911 the Alliance between Britain and Japan has been continued until 1921. Except against any Power with whom either may have concluded a Treaty of General Arbitration, the two countries will support one another in war should either have to defend its position in Asia.

To-day vast changes are beginning in China. The Chinese are awake at last to the need of national resistance. Armies are being equipped and drilled after the Western fashion. A navy is to be built. Schools and universities are being founded. Newspapers are circulating by the hundred thousand, and railways are being con-

structed. The trunk line of the Chinese railways has been completed from Peking southward for a distance of eight hundred miles, to Hankow on the Yangtse. It is carried over the Hwang Ho by a great steel bridge, and is to be continued to Canton, another seven or eight hundred miles.

There is navigation for ocean-going steamers from the sea to Hankow, eight hundred miles inland. There is also railway communication from Peking into Manchuria, and a junction with the Trans-Siberian line. It is therefore already possible, starting from Calais, to cross the whole breadth of Europe and Asia by railway, and then turning southward to proceed by railway as far as Hankow, in the very heart of China.

The products of China in international commerce are chiefly tea and silk. But there are great coal-



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FIG. 141.—A STREET SCENE—NANKING, CHINA.

fields and rich iron ores, and there is a vast supply of clever labour, so that the time must come when the Chinese will be important competitors among the manufacturers of the world. At the present time all the world is watching China to see what will happen there next. The ancient Chinese Empire has been overthrown, and a Republic set up.

The dominions of China, it must be remembered, as they appear on the map of Asia, include vast regions, for the most part thinly peopled, which lie outside China Proper. They are the highland plateau of Tibet, and the lower but still upland countries of Eastern Turkestan and Mongolia, and the plain of Manchuria. But Manchuria is now in part occupied by the Japanese and in part by the Russians. In all these vast outlying provinces there are but a few million people. Let us not forget, however, that China Proper has eight or nine times the population of Japan.



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FIG. 142.—PORT ARTHUR, SHOWING THE RUSSIAN WARSHIPS SUNK DURING THE JAPANESE BOMBARDMENT.

CHAPTER XVIII. GERMANY

IN no part of the world have the new facilities for industry and communication produced a greater change than in the old and civilized countries of Central Europe. We have seen that the central part of the map of Europe was wholly altered in the middle of the nineteenth century by a series of great wars. The German race, formerly divided into a number of small states, was united in 1871 to form the German Empire, except that the Germans of the south-eastern border, ruled by the Hapsburg emperors at Vienna, remained apart and in league with the Hungarian Kingdom. In earlier times France and Austria frequently made war across Western Germany, inflicting upon the minor German States untold miseries. It will be remembered that the Duke of Marlborough, in alliance with the Austrians, won his most brilliant victory against the French at Blenheim on the German Danube. All this has been changed by what happened in 1870, for no battles can now be fought within Germany, unless the German Government be engaged in the conflict.

The rise of Prussia did not, however, at first improve the position, for as power increased at

Berlin, Austria became less able to lead the minor states of Germany, with the result that there was still worse confusion in the German Bund, since the minor states had now two masters. We have seen how Austria checkmated Prussia at Olmütz in 1850, when the earlier attempt was made to create an empire centering in Berlin.

By striking Austria out of Germany in the Seven Weeks' War of 1866, Bismarck took the first step to a new order of affairs. When he defeated France in 1870 he defended his work and completed it. Finally in 1878, when Russian weakness had been demonstrated in the war with Turkey, United Germany was at last free from all threat of interference, and the older powers of Europe were obliged to recognize that a new and great power had been created in the centre of the Continent. Think what the change meant to the French who remembered the time when France was all-powerful in Europe and dictated her will to the little German and Italian States!

Then Bismarck, looking abroad, saw that the strength of the two greatest powers in the world, Britain and the United States, rested on their industrial and commercial activities and on the ensuing wealth and intelligence of their peoples. He therefore resolved, when as yet the ink of the Treaty of Berlin was hardly dry, that the industries and commerce of Germany should be increased. In the two generations which had preceded the unity of the Fatherland, the Germans had

become a highly educated race. In the dark days after the great defeat at Jena many universities had been founded to strengthen the people for the future, and popular education was established in Prussia a full generation before it was universal in England. Nor must it be thought that Germany was wholly without either industries or commerce in the days before the Empire. Even before the war of 1866 Prussia had joined with several of the lesser states of the Bund to form a Customs Union, within which no duties were levied when goods went from one state to another, as for instance from Prussia to Hanover. The revenue raised at the frontiers of the Union was, of course, distributed in equitable proportion among the various states within. When the German Empire was created in 1871 this Customs Union was extended so as to contain the whole area of Germany except the two Hanseatic ports, Hamburg and Bremen. These remained free ports, so that no duties were charged when goods were landed from the sea, but only when they passed forward into the territory of the Customs Union. Thus Germany became one country for the purposes of trade, and the internal barriers to commerce were removed.

After 1878 further great changes were gradually effected. The two free ports were included within the Customs Union. The Governments of Prussia, Bavaria, and the other states bought up the railways: the lines of Alsace-Lorraine be-

longed already to the Imperial Government. Subventions were given to two great steamship companies, the Hamburg-American Company trading from Hamburg, and the North-German-Lloyd Company trading from Bremen, and lines of regular German steamers began to ply not only to New York, but to South America, to East



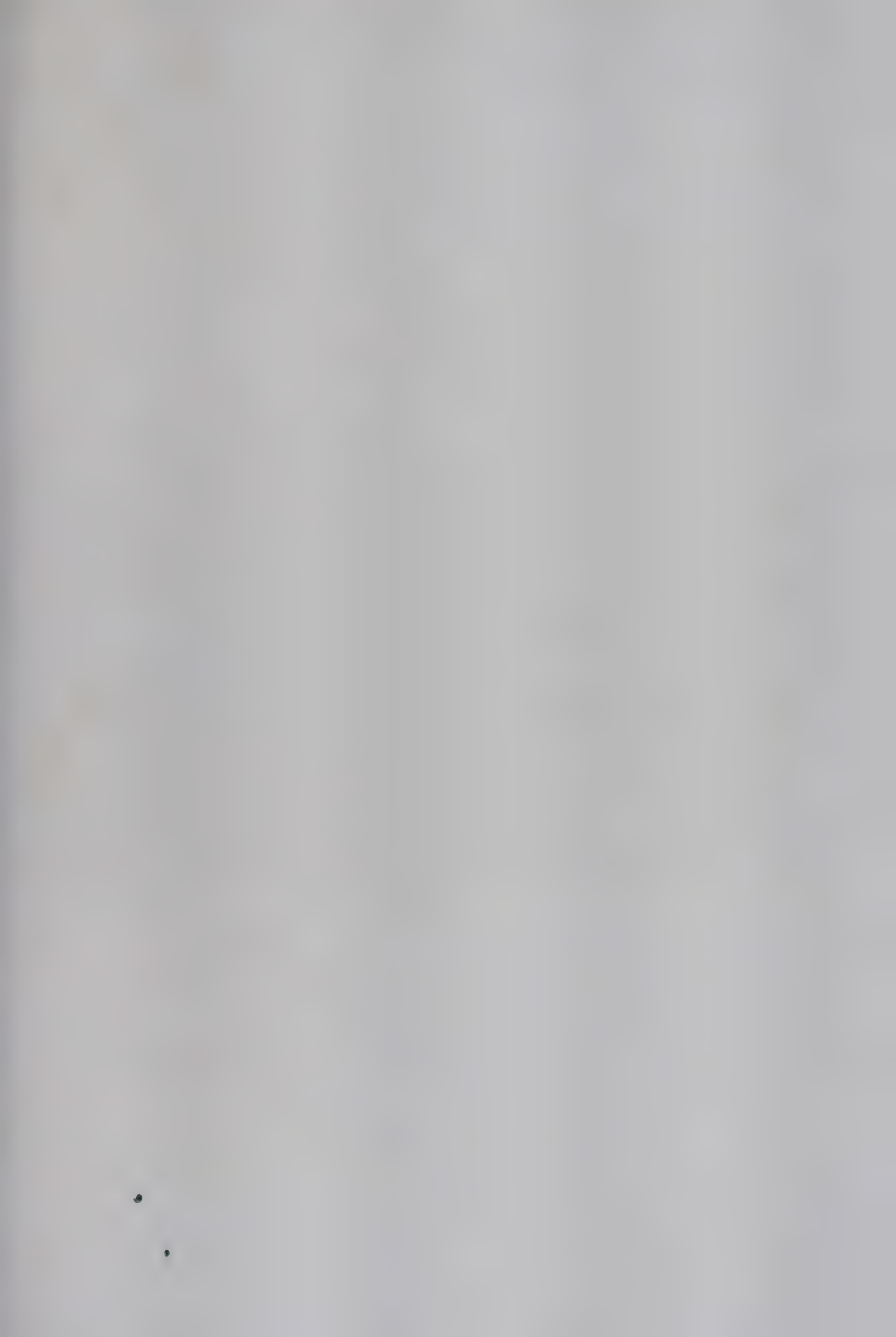
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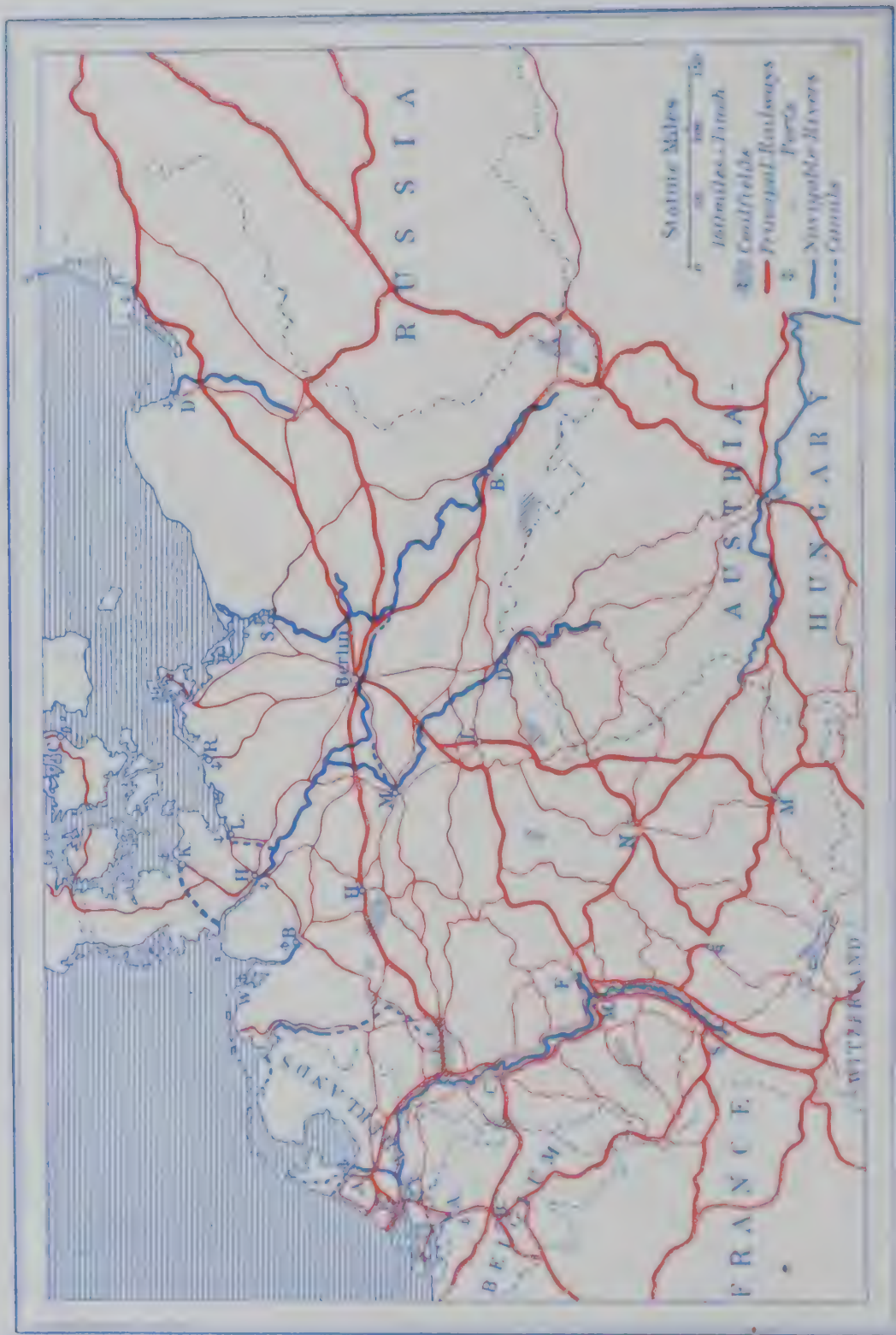
[Underwood & Underwood, London & New York.]

FIG. 143.—THE KIEL CANAL.

This canal greatly increases the naval strength of Germany by uniting the Baltic and North Sea Fleets.

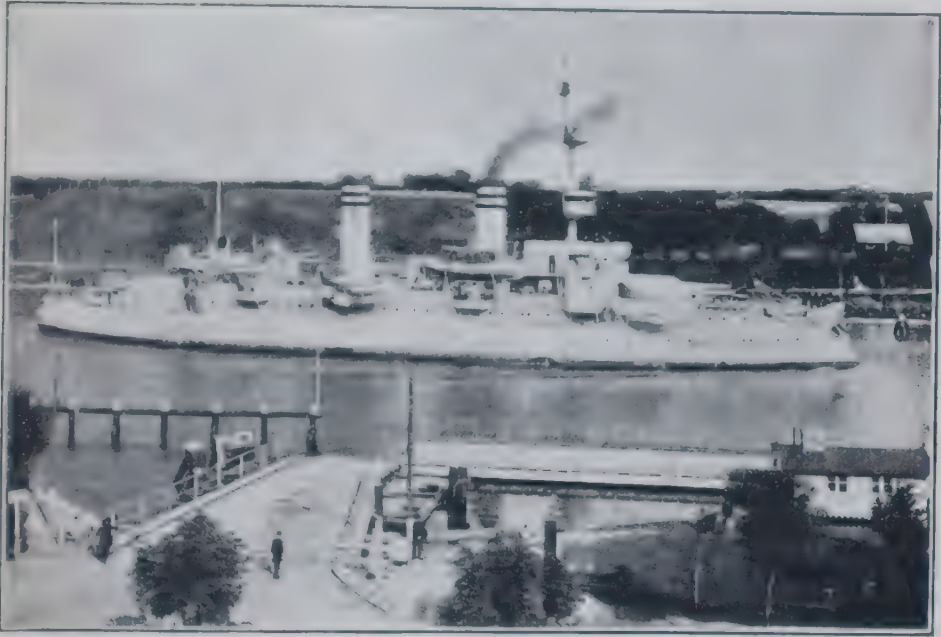
Africa, to Australia, and the Far East. A ship canal was cut from Kiel to the mouth of the Elbe to connect the Baltic with the North Sea, and thus avoid for German commerce the detour northward through the Danish straits. Finally a fleet of battleships was built, naval dockyards were constructed at Kiel and Wilhelmshaven,





ship-yards were established at Dantzig, Stettin, Kiel, Hamburg, and Wilhelmshaven, and a great arsenal for the manufacture of big guns and armour plates was developed under the firm of Krupp at Essen near the Rhine.

The industries of Germany have so grown, especially on the coalfields of Westphalia, Saxony,



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FIG. 144.—A WARSHIP IN THE KIEL CANAL.

and Silesia, that whereas the German population amounted in 1870 to only forty millions, it is now more than sixty-five millions. Berlin has grown in the same time from half a million to two and a half millions, or in other words, has grown at the same rate as the city of Chicago in America. Germany now exports manufactured articles to



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FIG. 145.—KRUPP'S WORKS AT ESSEN.

an extent only less than Britain. To-day she makes eleven million tons of steel as compared with six million tons made in the United Kingdom, and she is the second ship-builder and ship-owner of the world, although in these respects still far behind Britain.

The policy of industrial, commercial, and naval development soon led to a demand for colonial expansion. The New World was closed to Germany by the Monroe Doctrine, unless after a victorious war with the United States. Large parts of Asia were dominated by Britain and by Russia. Africa,

however, whose interior had only recently been discovered by Livingstone and Stanley, still lay open in 1880, and also certain parts of the Far East. The Germans therefore established trading stations along three stretches of the African coast, that is to say in Togoland in the Gulf of Guinea, on the southwest coast northward of the Orange River, and in East Africa, both in the island of Zanzibar and on the mainland opposite. For the first time since Trafalgar Britain had a real competitor along the distant shores of the world. We therefore made haste to demark our own trading claims on the African coast, and France did the same, for she also had some interests over the seas, saved from the wreck of her empire in 1815, or—in the case of Algeria and Tunis—taken at a later time.

A Congress of the Powers was summoned to Berlin in the year 1882 to settle the conflicting claims which had so suddenly arisen, and the upshot was that even before the completion of African discovery, except in its main outlines, the whole of that vast continent was allotted among the European Powers, regardless of native claims. Only the basin of the Congo, filled with one of the greatest forests of the world, and traversed by several thousand miles of navigable water-ways, was neutralized, and erected into the independent Congo State, with the King of the Belgians for its sovereign. But even this State has recently been constituted a Belgian colony.

The map shows that the only native African

countries which to-day remain independent are Morocco and Abyssinia. There is now a vast new French empire, extending from Algeria on the



FIG. 146.—AFRICA PARTITIONED.

Mediterranean across the Sahara, and across the western and central Sudan, to the coast of the Gulf of Guinea. But on the Upper Guinea coast, enclosed within French territory except along the

sea front, are the German colony of Togoland, and the four British colonies of the Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, and Nigeria. Through the last named flows the great river Niger, and its tributary the Benue. British Nigeria is a wide and fertile territory, the most accessible in West Africa by reason of the Niger navigation. Also enveloped by the French possessions is the little independent republic of Liberia, formed by negroes liberated from slavery in the United States in the days before the Civil War. Its capital is Monrovia, named after President Monroe.

To prevent annexation by Germany, a vast region extending northward, even to the shores of Lake Nyasa and the southern end of Lake Tanganyika, was added to British South Africa by the enterprise of Cecil Rhodes. The remaining coasts both of south-eastern and south-western Africa still belong to Portugal, being remnants of the once great empire founded from Lisbon. The north-eastern portion of the continent has fallen mainly to Britain, and will be spoken of in the next chapter.

Thus it will be seen that the German endeavour to found an overseas empire was not very successful, for the territories shown as German on the map of Africa, although two of them are of large extent, are not in the most fertile parts of the continent. None of them can compare with the British colony of Nigeria, either as regards productivity or accessibility.

In the Far East the Germans took possession of a part of New Guinea, and there as elsewhere compelled previous settlers to define their possessions. The western half of this great island was recognized as Dutch, and the south coast of the eastern half as British. The Germans also established themselves on the Chinese coast, at the fine port of Kiauchau, in the south of the Shantung peninsula. It was the German arrival in Far Eastern waters which precipitated the great changes which have recently occurred there, for other Powers made haste to "peg out their claims." Japan invaded Korea, Russia advanced to Port Arthur, and Britain established the naval station of Wei-Hai-Wei. France has recently made a considerable colony in the Indo-Chinese peninsula, in Tongking, Annam, and Cochin China, and has annexed the great island of Madagascar on the Cape road to the Indies.

So it came about that the first result of the policy of the new Germany was that the world outside America and Asia was divided between the European nations. Only in the east and the west of Asia, and in two regions of Africa, are there now extensive lands under the control of governments which are not Christian and not European in their history. The era subsequent to Trafalgar, when Britain traded, almost without competition, with native potentates along the farther ocean shores in a happy-go-lucky fashion, is now past.

Rebuffed in her effort to win important foreign possessions, Germany has for twenty years concentrated her energy in Europe, and in the commerce of the great German ports, Hamburg and Bremen. After the war of 1870, when she still feared that she might be attacked in revenge by France, Germany revived in some measure the old alliance of Germany, Austria, and Russia. But as the years went by after the Treaty of Berlin, it became evident that there was a keen rivalry between Russia and Austria for the heritage of the Turk on the Bosphorus. Moreover France made friends with Russia, on the same principle as in mediaeval days she had made friends with Scotland—in order to grip her enemy between herself and her friend. Therefore a re-grouping of the Powers of Europe took place. A Triple Alliance was formed in the centre between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy, to balance the alliance of France and Russia. The peace of Europe now depends on the fact that the forces of these two great alliances, the Triple and the Dual, are so equally balanced that the issue of a war is uncertain. Therefore in our time we have the extraordinary spectacle of a group of nations, all armed to the teeth, and yet since 1870 and 1878 there has been no war between them.

Of late, having regard especially to the growth of German power, Britain has had to reconsider her European policy. As we have seen, from the time of the Congress of Vienna in 1815 she inter-

ferred little in Europe, except on three occasions for the defence of Constantinople. France has also had to consider some hard facts. While her population has increased only from thirty-six to thirty-nine millions during the last forty years, the population of her German neighbour has grown from forty to sixty-five millions. Therefore Britain and



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FIG. 147.—HAMBURG.

Now the largest port on the Continent of Europe.

France have made the *Entente Cordiale* to support one another. Moreover, since the Japanese war, the Russians have ceased to threaten British India, and a friendly understanding has been arrived at between Russia and Britain.

Thus the Powers of the world are now arranged in three great groups. In the centre of Europe

are Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy, although it must be remembered that since the Italian coasts are accessible to sea power, Italy has reason to be friends also with France and Britain. In the west are Britain and France, enemies of old time, but very near to one another in their civiliza-



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FIG. 148.—THE PALACE OF THE REICHSTAG OR IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT AT BERLIN.

tion and freedom, and to-day friends. Each of these friends has a friend, Japan in the case of Britain, Russia in the case of France. And lastly we have the United States, very strong with her ninety millions of population, her territory nearly as large as Europe, and her position in the midst of the ocean. She is friendly to Britain, for reasons of

sentiment which have happily reasserted themselves after the long hostility which followed on the separation. Yet we must remember that the United States are not wholly British in origin, for a vast portion of the American population has been derived from the European Continent.

It has been necessary in this chapter to refer to the vast armed strength of some of the foreign nations, and also to their new rivalry with British Industries and Commerce, for it is a dangerous thing to live in a fool's paradise and not to recognize the changing facts of the world around us. But we have no right to be angry with other nations for their preparedness and success, though they impose a duty upon us of increased defences and keener activity. A war between any two of the three or four greatest powers would be disastrous for the whole world. We and the Germans and the Americans come of the same great Teutonic stock of men. In literature, science, and engineering the Germans, the French, and the Americans are among the most civilized of all mankind. Therefore while we see to it with all our might that our country does not fall behind in the race, we should cultivate none but the most friendly feelings of appreciation and respect for the great neighbour peoples.

CHAPTER XIX. MODERN ISLAM

ONE part of the world there is which until very recently was regarded as doomed inevitably to decay. From Turkey through Persia to Afghanistan—from the south-east of Europe, that is to say, through the west of Asia to the Indian boundary—there lies a belt of independent states with Mohammedan governments, remnants of the old vast empire of the Saracens. It will be remembered that some centuries ago that Empire was in part conquered by the Turks.

Not much more than a hundred years ago the Turkish empire still extended north-westward from Constantinople into what is now Hungary, and north-eastward across the Danube into what is now Russia. It spread through Asia to the borders of Persia and to the head of the Persian Gulf, and more or less effectively through all Arabia, except Muscat, and through Egypt to Tripoli and Tunis. Algeria and Morocco were separate Mohammedan states in the hands of the Moors, not the Turks. There were Mohammedans in India—they to-day number more than sixty millions—and also far away in the Malay Islands. There was also an Arab Sultanate extending from Muscat

to Zanzibar, which controlled a great length of the east African coast. Thus Islam spread from beyond the Strait of Gibraltar in the west to the Malay Archipelago in the east, and from south of Zanzibar to the boundaries of Austria and Russia in Europe, and to include the Khanates of Khiva and Bokhara in Central Asia.

Through most of the nineteenth century Islam seemed to stagnate and decay, so that men spoke of Turkey as the "sick man of Europe." Gradually the Sultan's territories in Europe were limited. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 they were markedly reduced by the formation of a Christian Principality in Bulgaria, by the extension of Greece over Thessaly, and by the assignment of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austrian government. A generation earlier the Turkish viceroys or Khedives of Egypt had made themselves nearly independent, and had founded an hereditary under-throne at Cairo.

After 1878 the Turks seemed disposed to resist more effectively any further European efforts on behalf of the Christian subjects of their empire. The Sultan succeeded in establishing a retrograde tyranny at Constantinople which lasted for just thirty years. His army was reorganized by German officers. Recruited in the main from the Turkish peasantry of Asia Minor, the Ottoman forces were no negligible quantity even in the worst times of the decay of the nineteenth century. The Turks are still a fighting race when

properly organized and led, as Russia learned to her cost both in 1853 and 1877.

With the idea of rendering his army mobile the Sultan favoured the construction of railways



FIG. 149.—OTTOMAN EMPIRE—RAILWAYS.

through the empire, for his army-corps were scattered at Constantinople, Adrianople, Saloniki, Brassa, Erzerum, Bagdad, Damascus, and Mecca. A railway from Constantinople across Asia Minor,

and down the Euphrates Valley to Bagdad was projected. It was constructed some way across the plateau of Asia Minor, but the most difficult part, through the Taurus Mountains down on to the plain of Mesopotamia, has not yet been undertaken, nor the farther line from Bagdad to the Gulf of Persia. On the other hand a long railway now runs from Aleppo through Damascus, and then



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FIG. 150.—MECCA.

east of the Jordan Valley into Arabia. Railhead is already at Medina and will shortly be at Mecca. Thus the Moslem pilgrimages, which used to be undertaken at the cost of months and even years of toilsome travel, will in future be conducted as cheap trips by rail. Of late the pilgrims have journeyed chiefly by steamer on the Red Sea to Jiddah, and thence by road to Mecca.

While the Turks after 1878 showed their sullen resentment of the new situation by tyranny of government and military preparations, there were murmurs of rising fanaticism in Moslem Africa from Morocco to Cairo, and from Cairo to Zanzibar, and inland over all the oases of the Sahara, and through the whole of the Sudan. The Egyptians rebelled against their Turkish Khedive, but Egypt was too close a neighbour to the Suez Canal, and to the vast commerce passing through it to India and Australia, for Britain to contemplate disorder at Cairo with equanimity. Therefore we intervened to support the Khedive in 1882, and from that day to this have had to maintain a garrison in Egypt. A fanatical Moslem prophet the Mahdi, soon afterwards became leader of the Sudanese, and General Gordon was sent up the Nile to save the Egyptian garrison at Khartum, but was besieged there, and taken and slain before relief arrived. For a number of years the Sudan was given over to Moslem disorder after the old fashion. The population of the ill-fated country was rapidly reduced.

At last, when Britain had re-organized Egypt, and endowed it with railways, irrigation, legal order, and stable finances, a war was commenced for the recovery of the Sudan, which had become a refuge for fanatics and an unceasing threat to the now peaceable Egypt. The Sudanese tyrants were subdued by Lord Kitchener, and a joint Anglo-Egyptian Government was established at Khartum.

A railway was constructed from Khartum to the coast of the Red Sea at Port Sudan near

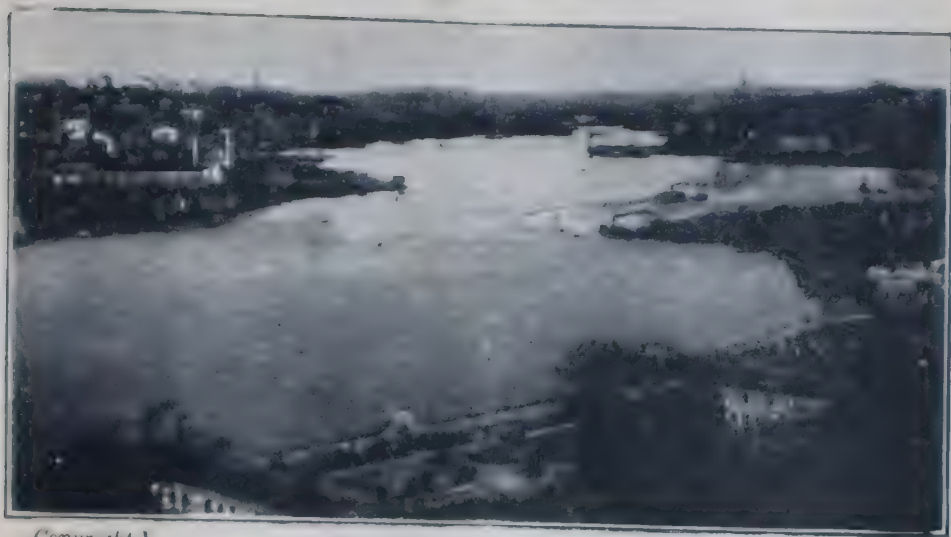


FIG. 151.—THE NILE AND THE SUEZ CANAL.

The Nile is navigable between the first and second cataracts, and a break has hitherto been left in the railway in that part, for there is little population there.







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FIG. 152.—CONSTANTINOPLE.

Suakim. Gradually the havoc of past years is being repaired and the once fertile territories of the Sudan are being repopulated. Mohammedan fanaticism found a last refuge in distant Morocco, where the jealousies of the European Powers in regard to the Strait of Gibraltar long prevented an effective suppression of the barbaric disorder. But even in Morocco France has now declared a protectorate, and a change for the better is in progress.

Meanwhile a dramatic change has taken place both in Turkey and Persia. Incited, doubtless, by the progress of Japan and Egypt, revolutions against oriental corruption have occurred both at Constantinople and at Teheran. At Constantinople the despotic Sultan has been dethroned, and the Young Turks, educated in Western Europe, while retaining their Mohammedanism as a religion,

have set up a Constitutional Government. Persia has not settled down again, but Britain and Russia are co-operating to reduce the disorder there.

Thus we have to-day the remarkable spectacle of two heathen Powers, Japan and Turkey, which are adopting Western methods of free government and military organization, and are taking their part in the "Concert of Powers," which consisted beforehand only of the Christian nations.

Part V

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

THE British Empire has until lately presented little unity, except that it was held together by the ocean and the fleet, and that in all parts of it one flag and one King were acknowledged. Its strength was almost entirely the strength of the home country. To-day, however the increase of foreign powers, outside Europe and on the ocean, is compelling a reorganization of British resources. The home country is no longer enough for the basis of an Empire. Broader lands must be added as the seats of British power. Let us consider the chief characteristics of the new British Empire which is taking shape in our time.



FIG. 153.—THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

CHAPTER XX. BRITAIN AND THE WESTERN OCEAN

“Little they know of England who only England know.”

WE have reserved for the last part of the last book of this series our description of the British Empire as a whole. The British Empire is world-wide, and cannot be understood apart from the other countries of the world, for it is neighbour to almost all of them. Only the Narrow Seas divide the United Kingdom from France and Germany. The Mediterranean and the Mediterranean Fleet make Britain a neighbour of Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey. In North America Canada marches with the United States. In Asia India marches with the Russian Empire and with China. The ocean and the Eastern Fleet make Britain a neighbour of Japan. We know little of the business of a shop unless we know something of the customers who buy from it, and of the commercial travellers who sell to it. •

The British Empire consists of many separate lands, some of them very large, but most of them small. The ocean it is which alone gives unity to the whole. The ocean has been likened to the cement which binds together the stones of the imperial edifice. Or again, in the idea of the poet, the liners on the ocean have been compared to the shuttles of the imperial loom. It must not, however, be concluded that Britain makes an exclusive claim to the possession of the ocean. The ships of other nations are obviously free to come and go upon the water. All that is essential to Britain is that no other nation should have power to deny the ocean roads to her ships, for her empire could not endure for six months were communication stopped between the ports of the widely severed component lands.

In accordance with old sea-faring custom, the ocean is divided into the Western Ocean and the Eastern Ocean. The Western Ocean lies West of Suez and of the Cape of Good Hope. The Eastern Ocean lies East of these points, and includes both the Indian and the Pacific waters.

The Western Ocean is in a certain sense the Home Sea of Britain. Save within the West Indian Straits and the Straits of Gibraltar it is not cumbered by frequent islands, which in time of war might harbour enemies, nor are there narrows where an enemy might obstruct. The ships leaving the Channel pass out directly on to the High Seas, or, as the nautical phrase has it, on to

the "Blue Water." It is a matter of most happy significance that the British Isles, close as they lie to Europe on the one side, should on the other be free of the ocean.

The Eastern Ocean is the ocean of the Indies. For the British people the dominant fact of the East is the Indian Empire. Four steamship tracks converge over the Seas upon India: from Aden and Suez, from the Cape, from Australia, and from the Western ports of America by way of Japan and the Straits of Malacca. All the British men-of-war east of Suez and of the Cape constitute our Eastern Fleet.

In the present chapter we will deal with Britain and the Western Ocean, in the next chapter with India and the Eastern Ocean, and in the last chapter with the New Britains Beyond the Seas.

Britain in the European Seas is the nest from which the daughter nations have flown to build afresh in the Britains Beyond the Seas. As the story has been traced in this book, the Mother Britain has passed through four historic phases. To each of these there corresponds an aspect of the geography of to-day.

The first phase takes us to the tideway of the Thames and to the fertile plain of South Britain. The founders of the British Empire were the nation of English farmers who settled in this plain after Roman times, and were disciplined under the rough command of King Alfred and King William. Another branch of the same race settled

in the smaller plain of North Britain, and became the Scottish nation. At a later time both English and Scotch made settlements in the sister isle of Ireland, the first in the East and the second in the North of Ireland. In each of the three countries, however, the Celtic hillmen stood their ground—the Welsh in England, the Highlanders in Scotland, and the Ersemen in the West and South of Ireland. But the dominant people of all Britain were the farmers of the English plain.

In thirty generations—in a thousand years, that is to say—these English farmers worked out the art of self-government, which is the art of combining order with freedom. To them the world owes the idea of trial by jury—trial in other words by a man's fellow-citizens, and not by officials appointed and removed by the king. To them also it owes the idea of representative government—whereby the elected representatives of the people grant money to the king or withhold money from him. To them yet again is due the idea of responsible government—in accordance with which the king's ministers may rule only so long as they have the support of a majority of the representatives of the people. This first phase of British development finds expression to-day in the green country of rich farms in South Britain, with its little market towns and quiet cathedral cities.

The second phase began when the English were no longer content to see the trade of their ports in

foreign hands, and their shores at the mercy of foreign warships. When Spain prepared to invade England it became necessary for the islanders to take to the water, and to clear it of their foes. Once embarked, the spirit of adventure drew them on from the Narrow Seas to the High Seas. Sir Francis Drake sailed round the world, the Armada was defeated, and a Company was founded in London to traffic with the East Indies. For more than two centuries there was strife upon the water between the Islanders and the Continentals. The American colonies were lost when for the moment supremacy on the Western Ocean had passed to the French people of the Continent. The victory of Trafalgar marks the end of this, the second phase of British history.

London is to-day's embodiment of this phase, for London is great, not chiefly as the market and centre of the agricultural plain of England, but as the heart of our vast system of ocean-borne commerce. Between the battles of Hastings and Trafalgar the population of London grew from fifty thousand to a million.

The third phase overlapped the second. It began with a great change within the island of Great Britain. No longer only the soil, but now also the minerals of the land were exploited by the Islanders. They multiplied indefinitely the strength of their right arms by the power of the coal which they drew from the pits of the north. The island be-

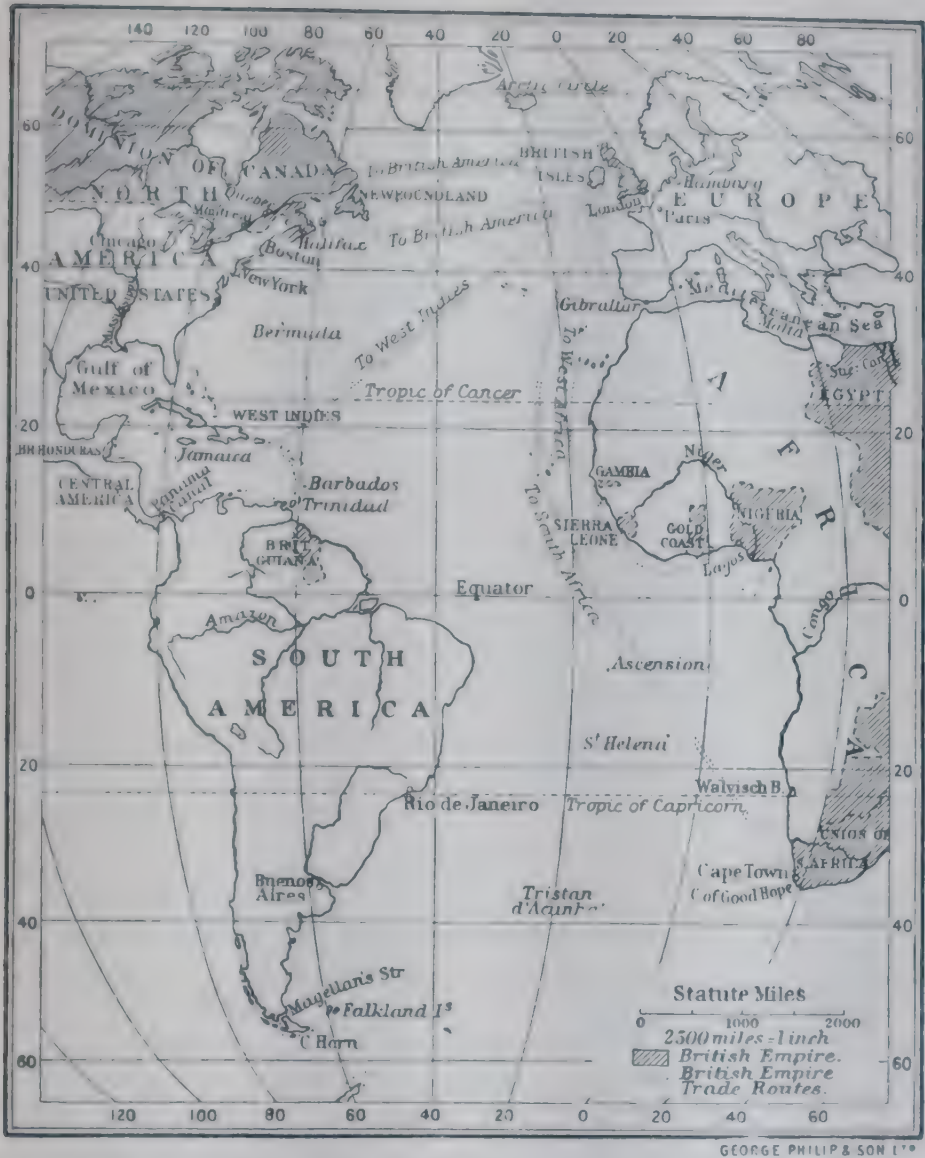


FIG. 154.—THE WESTERN OCEAN.

came in fact a vast factory, to which raw materials were brought, and whence the finished goods were removed for sale abroad. The food grown at home was no longer sufficient for the increasing population of the workers. After Trafalgar, however, the ocean

roads lay smoothly open, and commerce was without risk except from the winds and the waves. Therefore during the third phase of British history the Islanders came and went over the ocean, making settlements on far shores, and gathering without thought of danger a great population within their Island. They built up a community dependent largely upon import and export. They were like a hive of busy bees intent upon gathering honey from the broad garden of the world. This phase is marked in the geography of Britain by the cities of the industrial north. Manchester-Salford, Liverpool-Bootle-Birkenhead, and Glasgow-Govan-Partick have grown in 150 years from little more than large villages to be towns of a million people.

There was one very important aspect of this third phase of British development which must not be overlooked. The Scottish and Irish people of Teutonic blood, and all the Celtic peoples of the West and North, migrated freely to England, and especially into the North of England, the chief seat of the new industries. Thus the institutions which were at first purely English, have been extended and have become British, and on the other hand new strains of blood and genius have enriched and broadened the English character, and prepared it for its later imperial mission.

The fourth phase has just begun. It has overlapped the third, as the third overlapped the second. The nations of Europe and North America

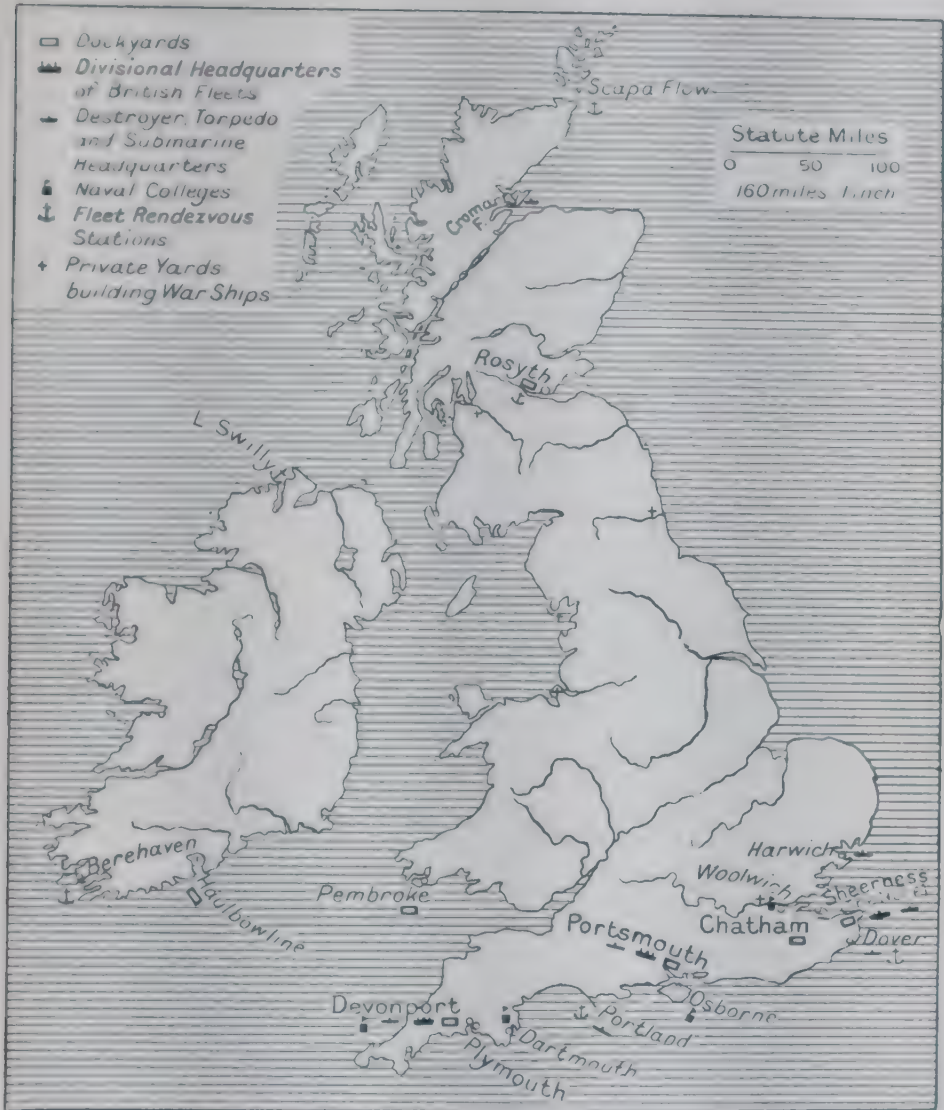


FIG. 155.—BRITISH ISLES—NAVAL PORTS.

Note the many naval establishments along the south shore and in the Thames estuary. These were founded in the time of the French and Dutch Wars. The new rivalry with Germany, we will hope not to end in war, is indicated by the new establishments in Scotland.

fought out their wars in the middle of the nineteenth century, and have since built up strong united governments, under whose shelter great industrial communities have risen to rival those of our Islands.

At the time of the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 Britain was still in the third phase. Her overseas empire had not yet experienced serious competition. Her industries at home were still indisputably the greatest in the world. There was no great rivalry in Fleet building. To-day new empires have arisen outside Europe, based on the United States and on Japan, and within Europe Germany has almost as much need of markets over the seas as has Britain. Throughout the world Britain now finds herself subject to a keen competition, alike in commerce and naval preparation. Whereas formerly there was a "Balance of Power" only in Europe, now power is balanced the world over. The aspect of British geography which corresponds to this fourth phase is the subject of what follows.

It is true that the United Kingdom is now a diminutive land beside the vast territories of the United States and Russia, but the immense advance in the power of communication has rendered feasible the knitting together of the old and the new Britains in a way that was almost unthinkable in the time of the American Revolution. The world has for practical purposes shrunk, and the effective control and use of the widespread power of Britain has become possible. Less than a week now suffices to cross the Atlantic from England to Canada, in the place of more than a month. Less than another week suffices to carry troops or mails to the far Pacific coast,



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FIG. 156.—BORING A LARGE GUN AT THE ARMSTRONG WORKS.

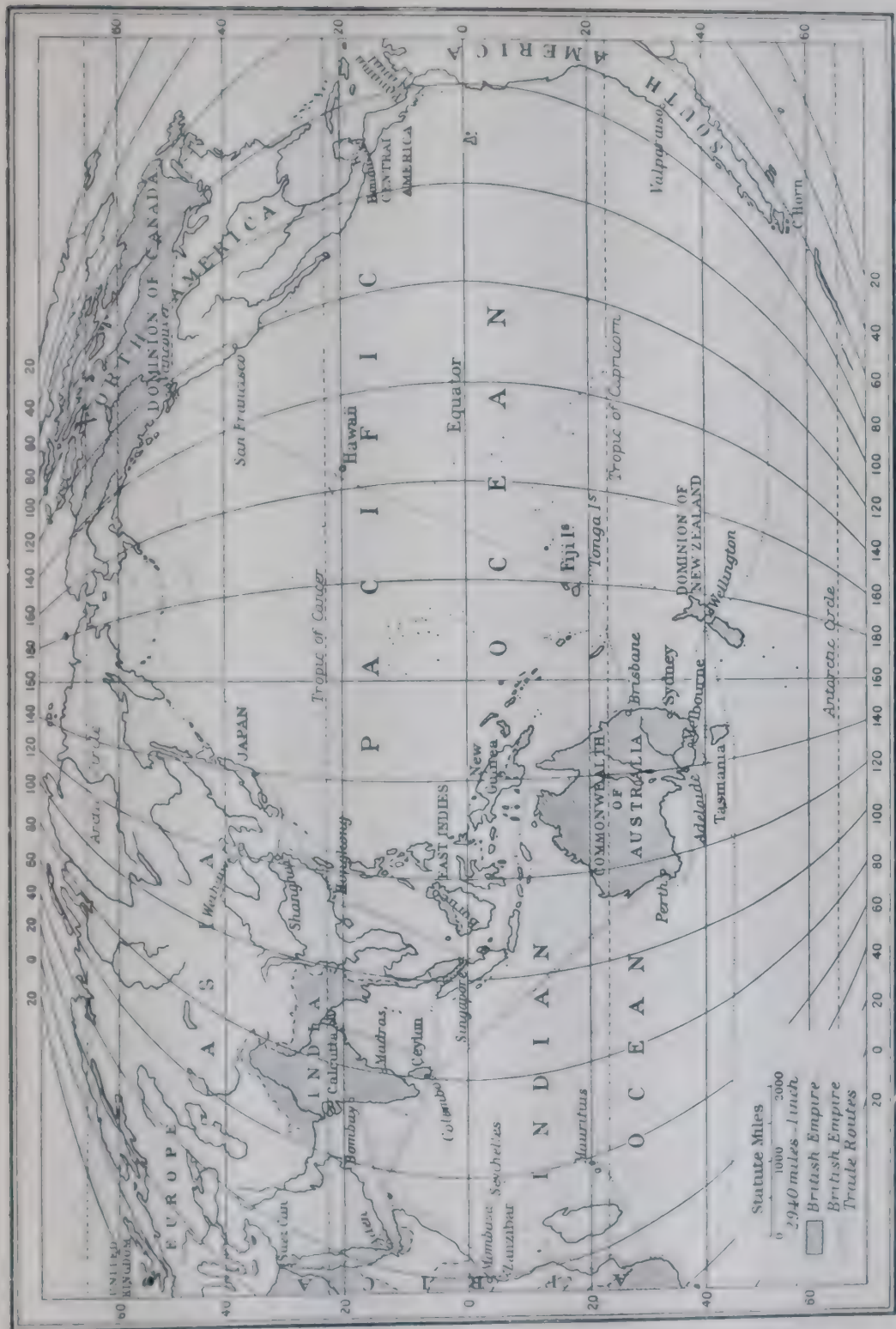
which fifty years ago could be approached only round Cape Horn by a voyage of many months. Wireless telegraphy to-day puts the Admiralty in London in nightly instantaneous communication with Gibraltar and Malta, and with the fleets in the Western Ocean.

Four steam routes converge upon Britain over the Atlantic Ocean. They come eastward from Canada and the United States; north-eastward from the West Indies and the Panama Canal—to be completed in two or three years' time; northward from South America and South Africa; and westward through the Mediterranean from the East. That these ways should be kept open is now vital to Britain, for her supply of food and raw material is dependent on the ships which traverse them. Therefore Bermuda and Malta and Gibraltar, and the fleets on the Mediterranean and North American stations, should be regarded as for essential purposes a part of the Home Land. The strength drawn from over the ocean enables our nation, pent within these small islands, to hold its own with the great states of the adjoining continent. But a fresh and serious risk is being run. Never before have we depended on our ships for fully half our supply of food. That is a new fact in the present generation. The freedom of the ocean ways, the command of the sea—these are expressions which have an urgency of meaning for us they had not for our ancestors even in the days of Trafalgar.

Of the Plantation Colonies two groups are on the shores of the Atlantic, and have thus more direct relations with the Mother Country than have the similar colonies in the Eastern Ocean. They are the two negro lands, the West Indies and West Africa. The West Indies, formerly among the richest of tropical plantations, have now been dwarfed among the productive areas of the world. British Guiana, however, of larger size, has still in the main a virgin soil and great potentialities. In connection with the Panama Canal the West Indies are likely to win some strategical importance. It is in West Africa, however, that Britain's largest plantation colony is now situated. Nigeria is one of the latest additions to the Empire. It is half as large as all India, but has a population of only about twenty-five millions, and these not of an ancient civilization, like the three hundred millions of India. The future of Nigeria may therefore be shaped with the less impediment for economic ends. Not improbably when American industry consumes the greater part of the American cotton crop, the looms of Lancashire will be supplied from the Niger. It is an important fact, therefore, that the same ocean washes both Nigeria and the Mother Country: the shipping between them has to run no such war risks as are incident to the passage of the Suez Canal and the Mediterranean.

CHAPTER XXI. INDIA AND THE EASTERN OCEAN

THE position of Britain in India is one of the most wonderful things in the world. Were the history of it not known to us, we should think it a miracle. That the people of a small and distant island in another ocean should come to rule an empire of three hundred million people of alien race, inhabiting a territory equal to half Europe, is a fact the like of which has never occurred before. There have been populous empires, the Roman Empire and others, but they have consisted of adjacent provinces. There have been commercial overseas empires, such as those of the Portuguese, the Spaniards, and the Dutch, but in these cases the population of the colonies was relatively small. Here in India, however, is a civilized population—for it is civilized, although the civilization is different from ours—numbering more than seven times the population of Britain. Most marvellous of all is the fact that Britain did not conquer India by means of great British armies, nor does she to-day hold India by means of a great British garrison. Clive won the battle of Plassey with a force of three thousand men, trained by Europeans,



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FIG. 157.—THE EASTERN OCEAN.

although he fought against thirty thousand, but of his three thousand only two hundred were British. To-day the Civil Service of India, which administers all those parts of the land—about two-thirds of the area and three-quarters of the population—which are directly ruled under the British Raj, consists only of some twelve hundred magistrates, recruited chiefly from the British Universities. They go out as young men, and by the time they are thirty years old they have each of them control often of a million people. The great force of the Indian police, as numerous as the Indian army, is a native force. Only the superior officers are British. The Indian army is twice as large as the British army stationed in India, and in each battalion of nine hundred men there are only fourteen British combatant officers.

We owe our position in India to three facts; first, to the deep divisions of the Indian peoples in regard both to language and religion; secondly, to the courage and daring with which dangerous positions have been faced by our officers, so that rebellion has usually been stamped out at the beginning before it could gain strength; and thirdly, to the justice of our rule, for there is no price at which the judgments of our district magistrates can be bought, a thing almost unknown in an oriental country.

It must never be forgotten that although there are great cities in India—new cities such as

Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, and Karachi, and old cities such as Delhi, Agra, Benares, and Ahmedabad—yet the vast mass of the people of India live in the rural villages. There are in India some seven hundred and fifty thousand of these



FIG. 158.—INDIA—POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

Note the distinction between the Central Provinces under direct British rule, and Central India, which is under Feudatory Princes.

villages, and the peasants know little and care little who is master of India provided that there is peace, and justice, and plenty in the land. Since the time, more than a century ago, when the commercial and ruling functions of the East India

Company were separated, the government of India has undoubtedly been in the interest of the Indians, although as regards its higher departments in the hands of the British. Emphatically has this been the case since the suppression of the great Mutiny in the Native Army. The British Government then took over the direct rule of India, though it was not until 1877 that Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress.

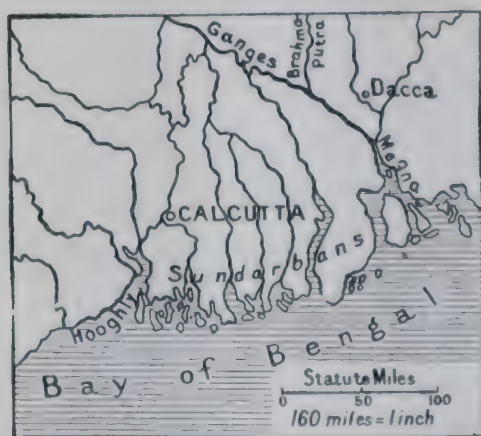


FIG. 159.—CALCUTTA.

The vast Meghna is the main estuary of the joint rivers.

After 1857 British policy in India changed in a vital respect. Up to that date we made vast and frequent additions to the territory directly ruled by British officials. Since that date, with the exception of Burma and of districts along the North-West Frontier, it has been our policy

not to annex, but rather to guarantee the rulers of the native states, which are scattered over India in the midst of our territories, provided that their rule be reasonably good.

The result is that to-day the feudatory princes of India are among the most loyal of the Indian subjects of the King Emperor. The Nizam of Hyderabad, the Maratha princes Sindhia and Holkar, the Maharajas of Rajputana and others are



FIG. 160.—A STREET SCENE IN BOMBAY.

not merely loyal, but loyal to the degree that they have volunteered the aid of armies, known as the Imperial Service Troops, raised, equipped, and paid by themselves, for the purpose of assisting the Imperial Army in the event of the invasion of India or of disturbance within.

The Indian army is now organized, for the defence of the North-West frontier, into northern and southern forces. The divisions of the northern army are cantonned along the plain beneath the Himalaya, from Peshawar to Calcutta, for the defence of the Khyber Pass. The divisions of the southern army are stationed through the west and south, at Quetta, Mhow, Poona, and Secundera-

bad, so that they can be used to reinforce an army, based on Quetta, for the defence of the Bolan Pass.

Let us not, however, lose sight of the fact that the defence of India can be conducted from

Britain, so long as the ocean road is open, no matter what may be happening in India. The desert of Rajputana lies between the Indus River and the main territory of India within. From Karachi, the port just

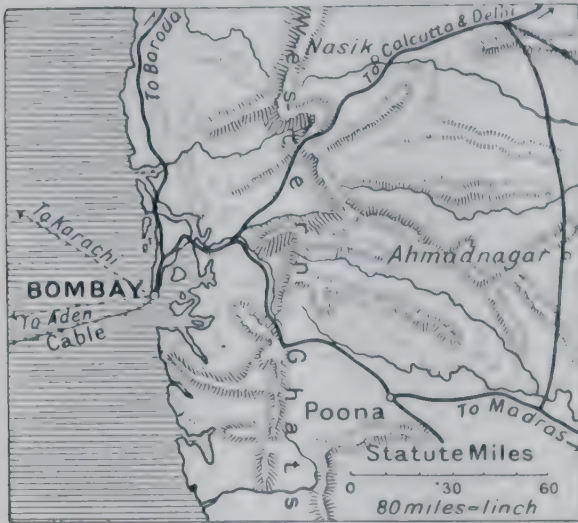


FIG. 161.—THE REGION OF BOMBAY.

Note the two railways ascending the Ghats on to the plateau.

west of the Indus Delta, the North-Western Railway runs along the Indian border to the Punjab and the foot of the Himalaya. Spur lines have been constructed from the main line north-westward to Quetta and Peshawar, the fortresses on which the defence of the frontier is based. Afghanistan and south-eastern Persia have been constituted by international treaty a zone under British "influence." Britain respects the self-government of Afghanistan, but Russia has agreed not to cross the far frontier of that country, which marches with the Russian empire to the north of the Hindu Kush and of Herat.

Just where Afghanistan, Baluchistan, and Persia join there is a marsh, fed by the Helmund River descending from the mountains of Afghanistan, and around this marsh the waters of the Helmund have been used for irrigation, so as to form a fertile oasis, known as Seistan, which might be considerably extended by European engineering. It is certain that sooner or later a railway will be made



FIG. 162.—INDIA—N.W. FRONTIER.

The outer boundary of India runs outside Afghanistan and through Persia, and along the shore to the head of the Persian Gulf.

from the shore of Baluchistan northward to Seistan, and then eastward to join the existing railway at Quetta. Should the need arise there could, indeed, be constructed several such lines of railway leading from the sparsely populated coast to the interior, and based on these it would be easy for British armies to operate on the flank of any force invading India by way of Herat, Kandahar, and

the Bolan Pass. Fortunately there is no present threat of such invasion, for Britain and Russia are now friends. But there are wild hill tribes along the border between Afghanistan and India, and the turbulence of these gives as much occupation to the Indian army as the Highlanders of Scotland at one time gave to the British army at home.



FIG. 163.—KHYBER PASS.

Note that the pass does not follow the gorge of the Kabul River. There is a bridge at Attock.

It is evident, however, that whether we consider the defence of India from India itself, or directly from Britain, our position in the East depends ultimately on our power to send out the annual drafts to reinforce our troops, and to send out a whole reinforcing army should the necessity arise. Once more, therefore, we find that British rule rests fundamentally on sea power although it be maintained locally by the army.

It is a remarkable fact that, except for a few small cruisers to suppress slave trading and gun running, Britain maintains no fleet in the Indian seas. The reason is that there is no foreign fleet in those seas, nor indeed any foreign

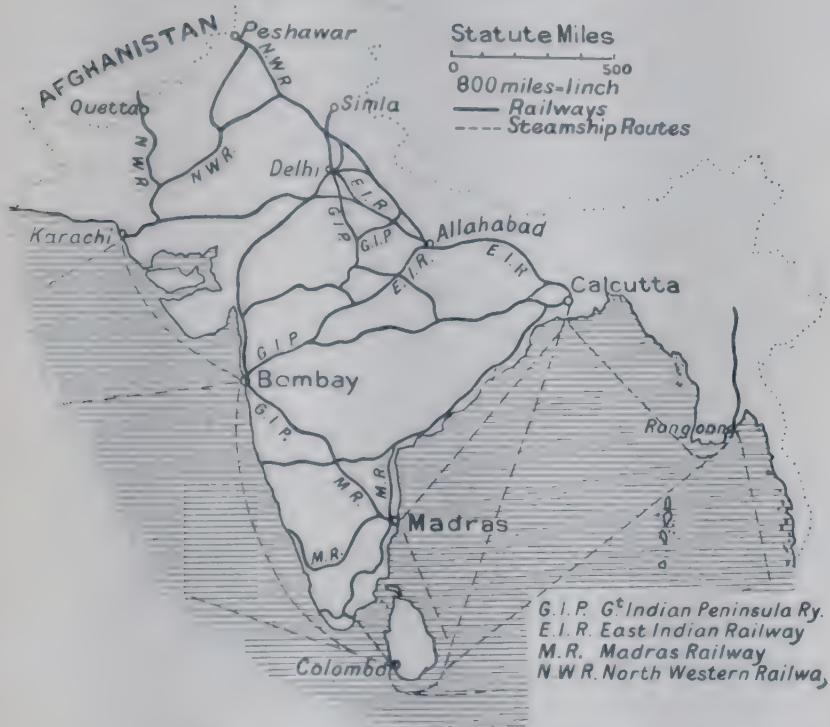


FIG. 164.—INDIA—CHIEF RAILWAYS.

port on which a fleet could be based. By an arrangement with Russia as regards Persia, and by earlier declarations, Britain has stated that she will not allow such bases to be established in the Persian Gulf. No detached port, either on the coast of Africa or in the Dutch East Indies, would be of any value as the local base of a foreign fleet,

so long as the British fleet is strong enough in European seas to prevent supplies being sent out, for there is no land in the Indian Ocean, outside India itself, where coal and steel and ammunition could be locally provided.

To-day there are two roads from Britain to India. That which is most frequented in time of peace leads through the Strait of Gibraltar, past Malta, through the Suez Canal, past Aden, to Bombay. From Bombay the railways diverge over the whole Indian continent, the only important break still remaining being that between the Burmese railways and those of the mainland of India. Some of the steamers, however, proceed by way of Colombo in Ceylon and so to Calcutta. Thence the East Indian Railway runs inland through the densely peopled provinces of the Ganges Valley. Calcutta is still the greatest port of India so far as freight is concerned, although no longer for passengers and mails.

The other road to India is that round the Cape of Good Hope, still used for certain cargoes to avoid the cost of transit through the Canal, and of vital importance to the Empire in the event of anything happening to block the passage by Suez. The stations along this route are still maintained—Ascension, St. Helena, Simonstown, and Mauritius.

To secure the Suez Canal, and thus the approach to India, the British are in occupation of Egypt. To defend Egypt they have

been compelled to advance up the Nile and to assume control of the whole vast territory which is known as the Eastern Sudan. To command access to the Sudan by alternative roads they have constructed a railway from Port Sudan to Berber and a second railway from Mombasa to the great lake Victoria Nyanza at the head of the Nile. The country of Uganda, whose people have of late been converted to Christianity, lies on the shore of Victoria Nyanza, and the railway from Mombasa is therefore known as the Uganda Railway. The country through which it passes is the

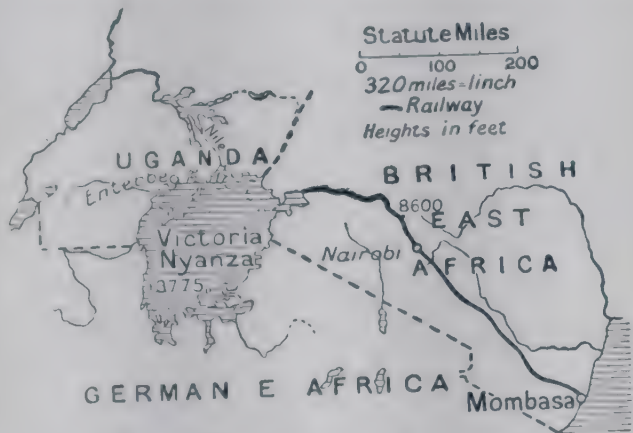


FIG. 165.—UGANDA RAILWAY.

Note the height, 8,600 feet, over which the Railway runs on its way to the Lake, which is 3,775 feet above the sea at Mombasa. Nairobi is the capital of British East Africa. Entebbe of Uganda.

East African Protectorate. It is certain that Britain would never have accepted such vast burdens of rule in these savage lands of North-Eastern Africa had it not been for the need of making sure of the canal road to India.

In face of the heavy British responsibilities in India, and elsewhere on account of India, it is often asked why we remain in India. We are there, as the result of a series of moves taken at

first for purely commercial purposes, and then for reasons of defence during our long wars with France. In later times province was added to province in order to secure the earlier annexations from threatened dangers. To-day we have lent British capital, that is to say British savings, to the extent of hundreds of millions sterling for the purpose of constructing Indian railways, and irrigation canals, and harbours, and factories. We do a great trade moreover annually, selling in the Indian markets the products of our industries, and buying there some of our food and raw materials. Were we to leave India to-morrow there would be great disorder there, for undoubtedly the Mohammedans, and other warlike races, would try to resume the rule from which we ousted them, and quite as certainly the Hindu majority would resent it to the point of civil war. Our investments and our trade would be lost, and the peace of India would be gone, to the detriment of the helpless myriads inhabiting the Indian villages.

India, moreover, pays the cost of her own government and her own defence, except in so far as the fleet upon the ocean is concerned. Even Aden is now administered as a part of India. It must not be forgotten that Malta and Gibraltar were taken before the Suez Canal was cut, and would be needed to support British defensive policy in Europe, even if India were lost.

For these reasons it is our duty to stay in

India, and since it is our duty to stay there it is also our duty, in the interest of those whom we govern, to see that we are sufficiently strong to render internal rebellion or foreign invasion hopeless undertakings. Meantime progress is slowly being made towards a future when under British guidance the Indian peoples shall have forgotten their bitter differences, and shall have learned the difficult art of self-government without disorder. A few years ago municipal councils, more or less after the British model, were granted to some of the great towns, and now councils have been set up, with native majorities elected by the higher and more educated classes, both Mohammedan and Hindu, to assist the Governors and Lieutenant-Governors of the various provinces. It is certain, however, that full self-government after the British model will not be seen in our time, or indeed for long after. It has taken a thousand years to educate the British people to the safe enjoyment of their present rights. None the less it is best to look hopefully forward, rejoicing in each careful step taken, but standing ever firm against the beginning of disorder, which if allowed to gain headway would lead to disastrous ruin and bloodshed.

Beyond India eastward are other imperial stations to be compared with Malta, Gibraltar, and Aden. They are Singapore and Hong Kong, dockyards for our fleet in the Eastern Seas, which is the strongest fleet we maintain out of Euro-

pean waters, although not so strong as formerly ; for Japan is now our ally, and for the time being we have concentrated most of our ships in the home waters. Britain does a great trade in the China Seas, second only to that which she does with India. The tonnage which passes through the harbour of Hong Kong is the fifth highest tonnage among the ports of the world, being exceeded only by London, Liverpool, New York, and Hamburg. But the route from Britain to China is protected by the same defences as suffice for India ; and Singapore and Hong Kong are rich colonies paying their own way, so that the Far Eastern stations of Britain entail only the cost of the fleet maintained in the China Seas, and that fleet is available elsewhere in case of need.

CHAPTER XXII. THE NEW BRITAINS

WHAT are the essential elements of the British Empire as we have dealt with it thus far? Are there not five of them?

First we have the British People, numbering to-day—men, women and children—some forty-five millions. They have inherited from their ancestors the tradition of free yet orderly government. That tradition is embodied in such institutions as Trial by Jury, and rule by a Ministry responsible to an elected Parliament. But beyond all institutions is the spirit and temper which work through them. Our habit of government is perhaps best indicated by the statement that it is the opposite of Napoleonic. The very genius of our language, the language of Shakespeare and the English Bible, lends itself to moderate and concrete speech. Our idea is to leave initiative as far as possible to the individual, not the State. We like “to live and let live.” We fight only in defence. We reform only that which is inconvenient in practice.

This British spirit has also its great defects. We at times think so much of the individual and his rights that we think too little of the safety of

the State and of the common good. We are too prone to seek material comforts, often at the cost of efficiency. We too easily tolerate ugly things of every kind. But none the less, the British tradition is deeply worth preserving. The best in it is worth fighting for, should the need arise, for no other national tradition has equally conduced to the lasting development of what is happiest and highest in mankind.

Second is the British Shipping on the seas. Since the battle of Trafalgar the British people have multiplied nearly threefold, and the two British islands do not produce half the food now needed. The remainder is obtained by the Industries and Foreign Commerce. Britain contributes to these the labour and brains of her people, the coal of her mines, and the machinery and other appliances built with her savings. For the rest she imports food and raw material, and exports the finished products to overseas markets. We are the largest builders and owners of the ships which thus traffic from our ports. The shipping of the whole world amounts to forty-two million tons, and of this total the United Kingdom owns nearly eighteen million tons. In the present generation these ships have become essential to our very existence, for without them we should starve. Therefore the ships of Britain should be regarded as an integral part of our national organism, no less than the fields of the British Islands themselves.

Third is the British Raj in India, the rule that is to say of three hundred million people of other than British speech and traditions. The same qualities which characterise our self-rule in Britain have rendered possible our imperial rule in India. On the one hand we have individual energy and initiative, and on the other toleration of unessential differences and anomalies. While we have maintained peace and justice in the East, we have refrained from interference with the daily habits of the people.

Although our achievement in India is in the main a triumph of organization, yet it rests on a basis of power, just as the credit created by a bank rests on a basis of cash. The small British army in India, numbering some 80,000 men, is maintained by annual drafts from home, and is supported at home by another standing army of somewhat larger size.

The ships which go to and fro between Britain and India are an essential element of the British Raj. Without them the supply of white administrators and soldiers would soon run short. But these ships are a part of the same great mercantile fleet which supplies the wants of the Mother country. Britain draws some of her food and raw material from India, and finds a market for some of her manufactures there. In other words some of the same ships which are essential to the existence of Britain are essential also to the maintenance of the British Raj in India.

Fourth are the War Ships which keep the ocean ways open for British merchants. Since the ocean is one and continuous, the same fleet suffices in this respect, both for Britain and India. The greater part of it is kept concentrated in the home seas, because the chief competing fleet is at present in the North Sea. The British Fleet serves also to prevent the invasion of the British Isles, but it acts as the police act who protect a town from thieves : they do not post a sentry on each house, but chase the thieves and remove them to jail. In like manner the ships of a fleet are not dispersed, a ship to safeguard each port, for the enemy's fleet would attack them one by one ; they are held together in a great squadron, and they defend our shores by driving the enemy's fleet, if need be, from the sea.

The refitting dockyards scattered over the world are an essential part of the British naval organization. Especially important are those along the Canal and Cape routes to India. The British army in Egypt for the protection of the Suez Canal is of the same nature. These minor stations and protectorates have a double relation to the Fleet ; they support it and are in turn defended by it.

Fifth are the Allies of Britain among the Foreign Powers. If one of the states of Europe were to become great out of all proportion to the others, it might use the surplus of its vast resources to outbuild the British Fleet. From the moment

that a greater and equally efficient fleet sailed the seas, the food supply of Britain and her communications with India would be in jeopardy. We should have to yield every point which might be in dispute between us and such a power. Therefore it has been the traditional policy of Britain to make alliances with minor states in opposition to any great state which threatened to upset the balance of power in Europe. We were allied with Holland in opposition to Spain at the time of the Armada, with Holland and Austria in opposition to France in the time of Louis XIV, and with various states, such as Prussia, Austria, and Spain, in the successive phases of our fight with Napoleon. To-day France, under the *Entente Cordiale*, is our chief European ally, and outside Europe we have Japan for an ally. When in the past we have landed armies on the Continent it has been to support our allies there, as in the Peninsula a century ago, and in the Crimea half a century ago.

A fortunate effect of this traditional, and indeed inevitable, British policy is that we have often negotiated and fought on behalf of smaller peoples who were threatened with foreign tyranny. Thus the strength of Britain has on the whole supported the cause of freedom in the world. That strength has not been fatal to our own liberties because it has been founded mainly on our Fleet. From its very nature a fleet is of comparatively little avail for internal despotism.

For effective purposes, then, the British Empire has rested, until lately, on these five pillars—

1. The British people within the British Isles.
2. The British sailors and merchant ships on the seas.
3. The British rulers and soldiers in India.
4. The British seamen and warships, and the supporting stations scattered over the world.
5. The allies of Britain, especially among the smaller foreign powers.

Two great changes have taken place in the last few years in the British Empire and its conditions. On the one hand it has been challenged from without by the increased power of certain foreign nations; on the other hand fresh sources of strength have become effective within.

The first of these changes was dealt with in the fourth part of this book. In the past generation Germany, having made herself a united nation with a larger territory than Britain, has grown so rapidly as an industrial community that her population now numbers sixty-five millions. To the strongest army in the world she is adding a fleet which is to-day second only to our own. Her merchant steamers ply in all seas, and she transacts a great foreign trade. The United States also, having fought out their civil differences, have covered their vast territory with a network of railways. The American people now number ninety millions, and immigrants are entering at the rate of a million a year. As a

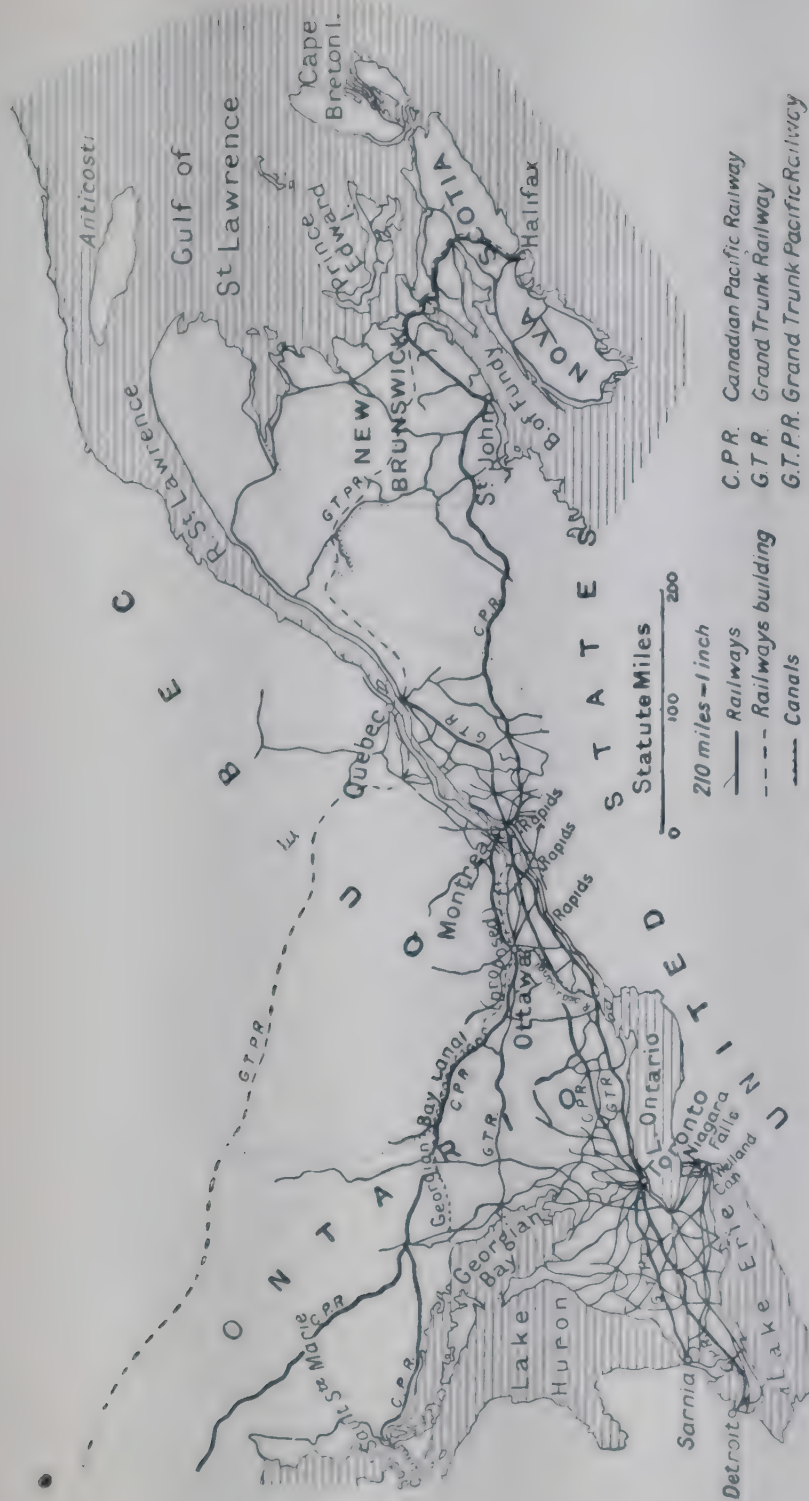


FIG. 166 — EASTERN CANADA.

The G.T.P.R. is "unrolling the map of Canada a hundred miles further to the north." These are the words of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, formerly Prime Minister of the Canadian Dominion.

result of the Spanish war, America has become the centre of an overseas empire, and is constructing and fortifying the Panama Canal. Already there is a war fleet under the Stars and Stripes which rivals that of Germany.

These two vast powers have arrived. But there are others rising which may be as effective in the future. Russia has a territory twice as large as that of the United States and a population of 150 millions. She has already constructed many thousand miles of railway. China, with 400 million souls, is accepting the material civilization of the West, and at no distant date will have to be reckoned with, like Japan, both in war and commerce.

In the face of these new facts, are not the forty-five million Britons of the British Isles in danger of being overweighted with the burden of defending their Empire? The British Empire rests on the supremacy of the British Fleet, and this is built and manned out of the resources of the United Kingdom. Through the last three centuries, as we have seen in this book, the recurrent anxiety of our statesmen has been to prevent the rise of a Power in Europe so great in resource that it could outbuild our fleet. Is not this very danger now before us, and not from one quarter only, and not merely from Europe?

Fortunately the British Empire has in its own vast undeveloped resources a reply to the challenge. Immense areas under the Union Jack have been



FIG. 167.—WESTERN ONTARIO AND MANITOBA
FORTY YEARS AGO.

FIG. 168.—WESTERN ONTARIO AND MANITOBA
TO-DAY.

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omitted thus far from our reckoning of the strength of the Empire, for the reason that although potentially invaluable they are only now beginning to be effective. The five New Britains beyond the seas are not dependent on the fleet for the supply of their food, nor are they governed from over the seas as is India. Until the countries of continental Europe and the United States of America extended their power through Asia and Africa, and among the islands of the ocean, the British settlements in the ends of the earth felt no need of support from the imperial power, and no call to contribute to its maintenance from their infant activities. To-day their circumstances have vitally changed, and the Britains—old and new—are preparing to co-operate to keep the ocean free, and to defend, if need be, the British traditions of government. Let us briefly survey each of the self-governing Dominions beyond the seas as it has taken shape in the last few years.

Canada was formed into a Dominion by Act of the British Parliament in 1867. The American Civil War had then just ended, and Canada saw beside her the united strength of a vast neighbour with which no part of the British North American colonies wished to be merged—neither the French of Quebec, nor the United Empire Loyalists of Ontario and the Maritime Provinces, nor yet the immigrants newly settled from Home in British Columbia and Vancouver Island. It was evident that these colonies must combine for



FIG. 169.—THE CANADIAN PRAIRIES FORTY YEARS AGO

FIG. 170.—THE CANADIAN PRAIRIES TO-DAY.

mutual support. A Federal Government was therefore established with its capital at Ottawa, but powers were not left to the provinces equal to the powers of the separate states under the United States Constitution. The American Civil War had taught its lesson to the Canadians, and they determined to have a strong central government. Therefore they set up provinces and not states within their new Dominion. The powers not specifically assigned by the Act of Parliament to the provinces remain with the Government at Ottawa.

But it was not merely a Federal Constitution which the Canadians sought. In the long run they could not have succeeded in their intention of building a nation unless their vast spaces had been bridged by railways. The Canadian Pacific Railway was therefore constructed from St. John on the Atlantic seaboard through Quebec and Montreal, round the north of the Great Lakes to Winnipeg, across the vast prairie—then tenanted by millions of wild buffalo and the Indian tribes—and by fine engineering over the Rocky Mountains, and down the gorge of the Fraser River to the port of Vancouver on the Pacific. From end to end of this railway the Canadian Provinces trade freely with one another, but a tariff has been set up along the International Frontier, for a revenue to the Dominion Government and in order to favour trade eastward and westward through Canada, rather than northward and

southward between Canada and the United States.

It used to be thought that the prairies in their more northern, that is to say Canadian portion, were valueless for purposes of agriculture. It is



FIG. 171.—VANCOUVER, THE TERMINUS OF THE C.P.R., AND PRINCE RUPERT, THE TERMINUS OF THE G.T.P.R.

Vancouver (City) must be carefully distinguished from Vancouver Island.

likely that the hunters of the Hudson Bay Company kept up that illusion as long as they could, for they realized that the fur-bearing animals would retreat before the plough. Vast though the territory of the Canadian Dominion is—as large

or even larger than that of the United States—the populated portions of it in 1867 were very small, being merely the valley of the St. Lawrence in the neighbourhood of the French cities of Quebec and Montreal, and the northern shore of Lake Ontario, and the peninsula thrust southward into the midst of the Great Lakes. Add small detached areas in the Maritime Provinces south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and still smaller areas in far distant British Columbia and Vancouver Island, and scatter over the intervening wastes rare forts for the protection of the trading stations among the Indians and for the support of the fur hunters, and you have a picture of the distribution of the Canadian population only forty years ago. It totalled some three million people, on an area nearly as great as that of Europe.

With the coming of the Canadian Pacific Railway, however, a vast region of prairie-land, beginning in the neighbourhood of Winnipeg, and spreading westward and north-westward to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, became available for settlement. Many immigrants, especially of the northern races of Europe—the English, the Scotch, the Norwegians, the Germans, and even the Icelanders—have of late been diverted from the United States to the north-west of Canada. Millions of acres have been ploughed for the first time and sown with wheat. Thousands of miles of new railway have been constructed, splaying out like the ribs of a fan from Winnipeg.



FIG. 172.—NEWFOUNDLAND AND THE MARITIME PROVINCES (NOVA SCOTIA, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, AND NEW BRUNSWICK) OF THE CANADIAN DOMINION. NOVA SCOTIA INCLUDES CAPE BRETON ISLAND.

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just as the American railways splay out westward and north-westward from Chicago.

The wheat required by thirty million people

is now grown in the Canadian North-West by a total population of a million. To supply the new wants of these western regions there has been a great expansion of industry round Toronto, in the Lake Peninsula, and to some extent also in Quebec. In British Columbia farming and fruit growing and salmon fishing have been developed, besides lumbering in the great forests, and mining for coal and gold.

Silver and copper and iron ore have been discovered in the northern parts of the Province of Ontario,

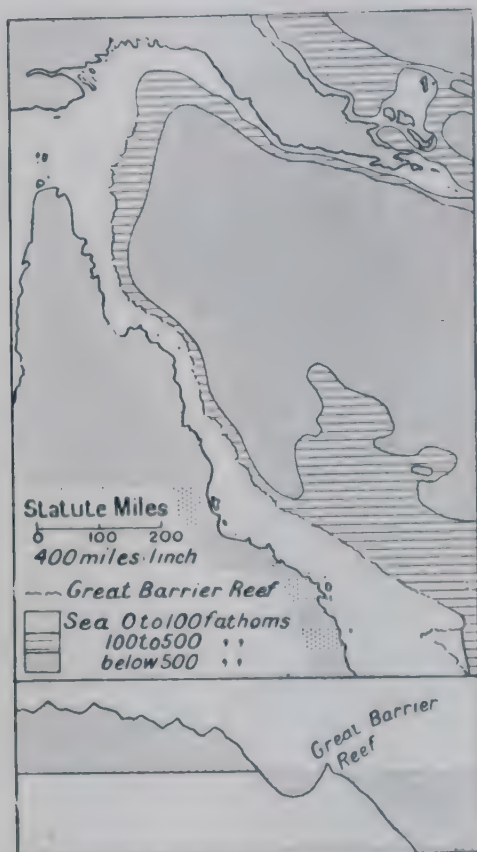


FIG. 173.—THE GREAT BARRIER REEF OF AUSTRALIA.

For a thousand miles the coast of Queensland is followed by a coral reef, between which and the shore is a sheltered seaway along which the steamers ply, calling at the successive ports whence railways run inland.

and iron ore and coal are obtained in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. A glorious prospect is thus opened up, and in the fact that many American

Win have



FIG. 174.—THE GREAT BARRIER REEF.

crossed the frontier and settled in the Canadian west, Canada has now developed her national



FIG. 175.—AUSTRALIA—POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

The Northern Territory, and the Territory of Papua are administered by the Federal Government. At Kalgoorlie are gold mines, and at Broken Hill are silver mines; hence the railways. The Federal capital is Canberra.

spirit sufficiently no longer to fear that the United States will seek forcibly to annex her. A second transcontinental railway is in process of comple-

tion, the Grand Trunk Pacific, and a third, the Canadian Northern, is projected and partly made.

Newfoundland is still a separate colony. The population is concentrated mainly in the south-eastern peninsula, and is therefore far removed from the St. Lawrence. The interests of the people, moreover, are not agricultural or industrial, but



FIG. 176.—YASS CANBERRA, THE FEDERAL CAPITAL OF AUSTRALIA.

The future name of the capital has not yet been settled. It will have its own port at Jervis Bay.

in the main they derive their subsistence from the great cod fisheries of the Bank, and from the seal fisheries of the Labrador coast, which is controlled for a few miles inland by the Government of Newfoundland. Hitherto, therefore, Newfoundland has been unwilling to join the Canadian Dominion.

Steaming from the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway at Vancouver in British Columbia, diagonally across the Pacific into the Southern Hemisphere, we come to the island continent of Australia. There in the year 1900 a movement took place for the constitution of a united nation,



FIG. 177.—SYDNEY—VIEW OVERLOOKING THE HARBOUR FROM NORTH SHORE.

The City is on the South Shore. Sydney has one of the finest natural harbours in the world.

similar to that which had been inaugurated a generation earlier in Canada. It was the rise of Japan, the arrival of Germany in the Eastern Seas, and the American conquest of Manila which brought home to the Australians the fact that they were no longer far removed from the rest of the world, and that they must organize for mutual sup-

port. Therefore the Commonwealth of Australia was founded by an Act of the British Parliament.



FIG. 178.—NEW ZEALAND—RAILWAYS.

The capital of the Dominion is Wellington, but New Zealand has no one dominant city. Wellington, Auckland, Christchurch, and Dunedin are about equally important.

The colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania and Western Australia became the States of the Common-

wealth. The Constitution was built rather on the American than the Canadian model, for great powers were left to the separate States. It appears likely, however, that as time goes on the influence

of the central government will be increased, so that the distinction between the States of the Commonwealth and the Provinces of the Canadian Dominion will diminish. In one vital point, however, the methods of Australian Government are similar to those of Canada and



FIG. 179.—NEW ZEALAND—NORTH ISLAND.

The great length of New Zealand gives it much variety of climate. The northern peninsula is sub-tropical. The lakes, volcanoes, and geysers are the natural curiosities and beauties of the North Island. Most of the Maories live here.

Britain, and differ from those of the United States. The ministers of the Federal Government, and also of the several states, are responsible to their Parlia-

ments, and not as in the United States to the Executive Head of the nation. Railways already knit together the four principal capitals, Brisbane,



FIG. 180.—NEW ZEALAND—SOUTH ISLAND.

The climate of the extreme south of New Zealand may be compared to that of Western Scotland. The South Island is quite differently constituted from the North Island. It has a backbone of high mountains, and glaciers and snowy peaks, lochs and sea lochs are its chief beauties. The prevalent winds are from the west, and the Canterbury Plains, under the lee of the mountains, are relatively dry. They maintain many sheep. The west coast is very wet.

Sydney, Melbourne, and Adelaide, but the line has not yet been made from Adelaide to Western Australia.

The two islands of New Zealand constitute a separate Dominion. The climate and the social conditions are too different from those of Australia, and the distance too great to render it practicable to amalgamate with the Commonwealth. It is unlikely therefore that New

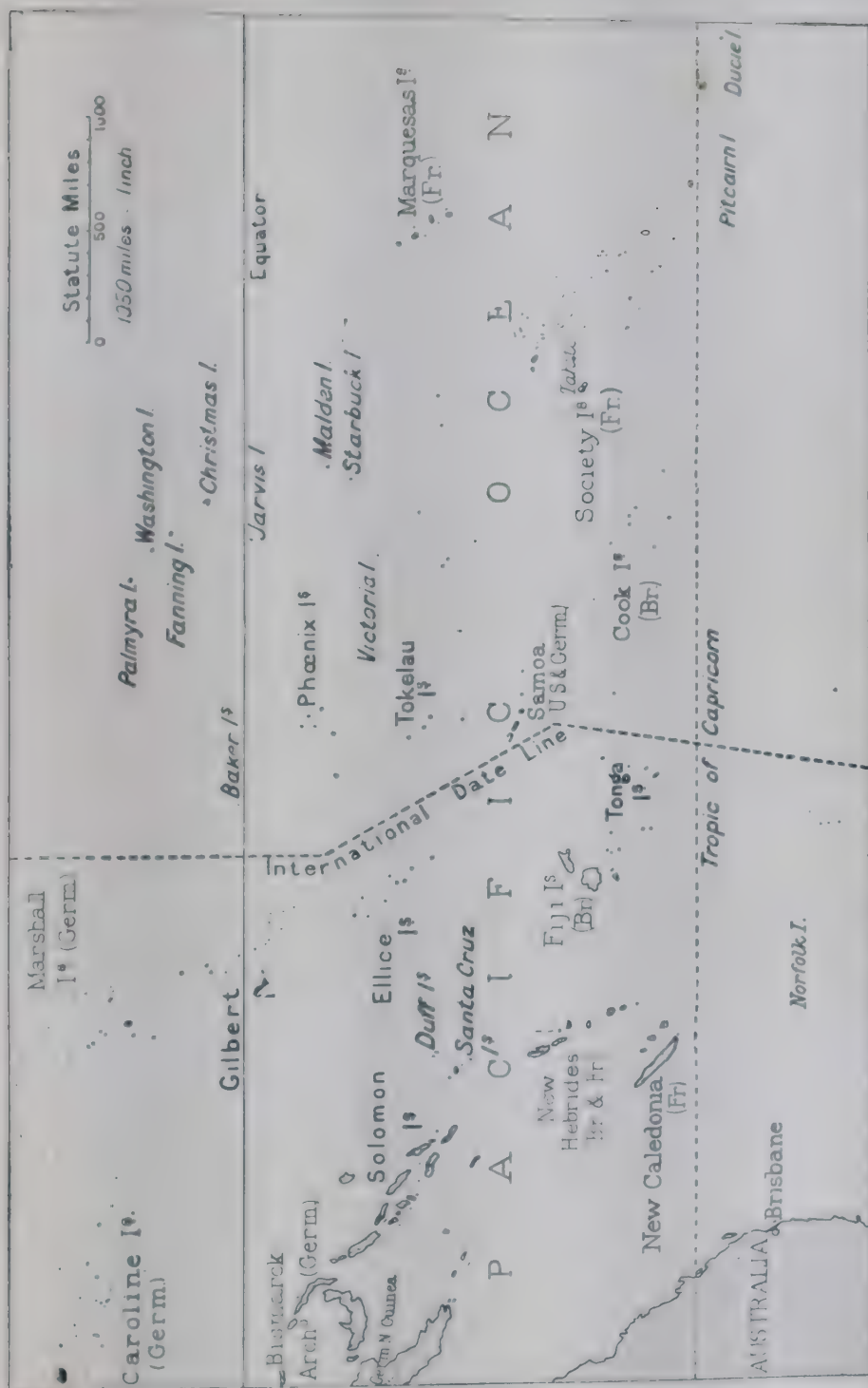


FIG. 181.—NEW ZEALAND—A FARMER'S FLOCK.

Wool, meat and gold constitute the chief wealth of New Zealand as of Australia

Zealand will ever cease to be a separate unit of the Empire, though at no distant date Newfoundland may, notwithstanding present local dislike of such a measure.

In South Africa the conditions are very different from those either of Canada or Australia, except that in one respect there is a certain resemblance



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FIG. 182.—THE HIGH COMMISSIONERSHIP OF THE PACIFIC.

The British islands named in heavy type belong to the Commissionership. The Commissioner resides in Fiji, of which group he is Governor. He is responsible to the Colonial Office in London.

to Canada, for in both countries a second European race is involved, the French in the one case, the

Dutch in the other. Both French and Dutch have been conquered, and both are now loyal, but there the similarity ceases. In South Africa the total white population numbers about a million, not very unequally divided be-

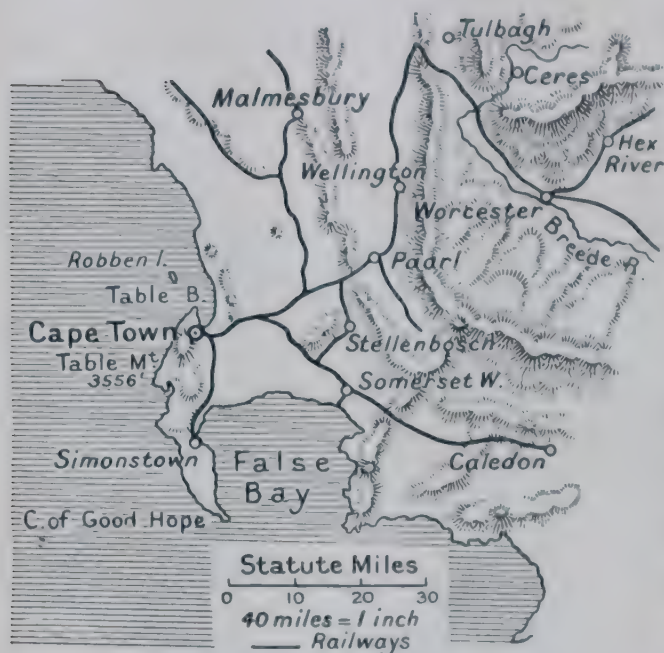


FIG 183.—CAPE PENINSULA.

Simonstown is the naval station. Wine is grown in the Cape Peninsula, for the climate is like that of the Mediterranean. Note the railway zigzagging up on to the plateau of the interior.

tween Dutch and English, though the Dutch have the majority. But there is also a black population of several millions. In view of this fact and of the consequent need of strong government—in view also of the relatively small number of the white population and of the cost of maintaining provincial governments—the colonies of South Africa have not been federated. They have been completely united, and there is therefore a single South African “Union” comparable with

the Dominion of New Zealand. In the recent great war the two white races learned to respect one another, and as one of the New Britains—though somewhat burdened by her native problem—South Africa will be loyal to the Empire and a source of strength to it.

Here then are the five Britains Beyond the Seas as organized to-day:—

The Dominion of Canada.

Population—eight millions.

The Colony of Newfoundland.

Population—a quarter of a million.

The Commonwealth of Australia.

Population—five millions.

The Dominion of New Zealand.

Population—one million.

The Union of South Africa.

White population—one million.

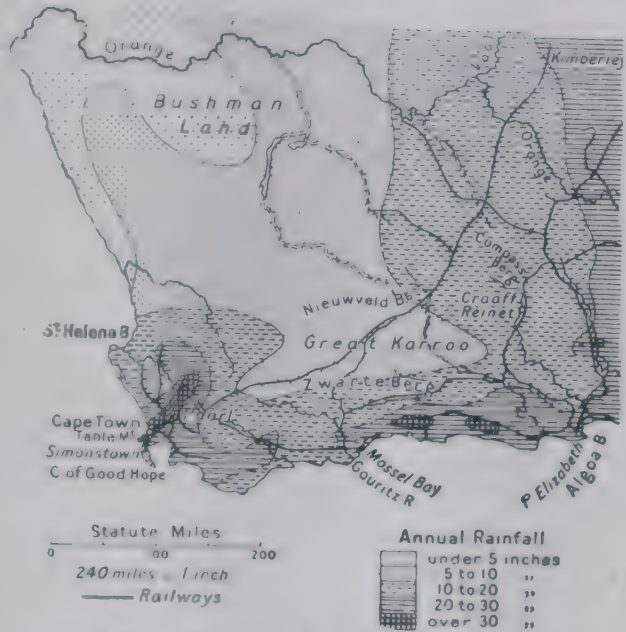


FIG. 184.—CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The Cape Peninsula is an exception to the rule that South Africa is wet in the east and dry in the west. The Cape rains are winter rains, whereas further east are summer rains.

The British Empire is maintained to-day by six Britains instead of one. There are more than sixty million white citizens in these self-governing nations, and there is space for many million more. It was in the Boer War of 1900 that the overseas Dominions made their first considerable effort

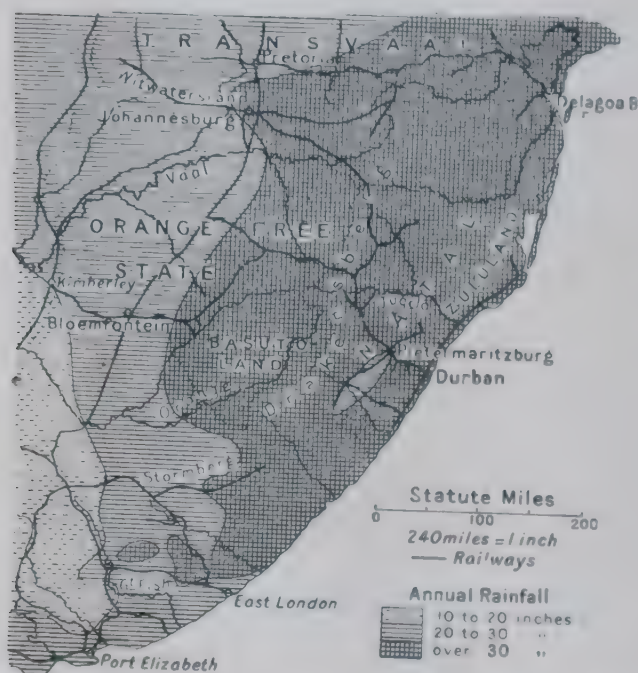


FIG. 185.—NATAL, ORANGE FREE STATE, AND TRANSVAAL.

The mass of the population of South Africa is in the east, for the reason evident from this map.

alongside of the Mother Country. In the few years that have elapsed since then not a little has been accomplished towards the new ordering of the Empire. The local militias or territorial armies have been re-organized, as well in the

Mother Country as in most of the Dominions, so that the Fleet and the Expeditionary Army of the Imperial Government may be set free for their proper functions. The units of the various forces have been assimilated, so that when operating together regiments, brigades, and divisions may

be interchangeable. An Imperial Staff has been instituted with interchangeable officers.

Canada and Australia are building squadrons of cruisers and torpedo craft to relieve the Imperial navy of local services. New Zealand is contributing a battleship to the Fleet on the



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FIG. 186.—JOHANNESBURG.

Johannesburg is in the centre of the Witwatersrand, the hilly ridge running east and west between the sources of the Vaal and Limpopo Rivers, which contains the chief South African gold mines.

China station. Cables, wireless telegraphy, and the postal services have been improved, so that rapid action in harmony may be feasible.

• Much, however, still remains to be accomplished. The Government of the Mother Country is still the Imperial Government, and acts for the

whole Empire in such matters as Foreign policy and the command of the Fleet. A truly Imperial Government, in some way representative of all the Britains, must sooner or later come into existence. Until that has been achieved, it is not likely that the overseas dominions will consent to bear their full proportional share of the defences of the Empire. In the meantime the Prime Ministers of the six Britains meet every fourth year in what is known as the Imperial Conference. This is a purely consultative Committee, very important none the less because of the high responsibility of its members. One of the most fortunate circumstances connected with our Empire is the fact that all the Dominions have adopted the British system of responsible government. The significance of this point becomes evident if we think of the difficulties which would ensue were the government of the United States one of those to be included.

The problem of imperial government will be solved, stage by stage, as successive emergencies may demand in the future. But while statesmen watch and wait, hesitating lest they act prematurely, there is much to be done by all of us in the way of preparation. Here in the United Kingdom we must grow used to the thought that the Empire is no longer based on a Mother Country and her Colonies. In regard to French Canada and Dutch South Africa that idea never expressed the whole truth. The new view, acceptable to

all the Britains, is that the Empire rests on a group of allied nations, whose institutions are similar. They are loyal to one another for reasons



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FIG. 187.—CECIL RHODES. THE STATUE IN THE BOTANIC GARDENS
AT CAPE TOWN.

Cecil Rhodes made a great fortune in the South African diamond mines, and used that fortune for the good of the British Empire. Rhodesia is named after him. He was a practical man who none the less dreamt vast imperial thoughts.

of historic sentiment, and support one another because they have interests in common. They differ in population and wealth, but are of equal

status. The old Britain stands first, but first among equals—*prima inter pares*.

While we thus rejoice in the multiplying strength of the Britains, let us not forget the great duty



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FIG. 188.—OSTRICHES ON A SOUTH AFRICAN FARM.

Fifty years ago South Africa was the home of vast herds of big game. Now the very ostriches are farm animals, and the wild herds are found only in East Africa.

which History has placed upon our race in the East. King George has been crowned at Westminster and has worn his crown at Delhi, in token that he is sovereign both of the Britains and India. Ours is the double discipline of self-rule and im-